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PROBLEMS

OF

NON-ENROLMENT NON-ATTENDANCE AND

DROP-OUTS IN SCHOOLS: A STUDY IN U.P.

(A STUDY SPONSORED BY PLANNING COMMISSION, GOVT. OF INDIA)

M.S. ASHRAF

T. S. PAPOLA



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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The present study deals with the three vital problems related with the universalisation of school education: non-enrolment, irregular attendance and drop-out. It seeks to measure the extent of these phenomena in different strata of population and identify the factors affecting them. The socio-economic characteristics of the households and various aspects of the condition of the schools have been associated with the extent of enrolment, regularity in attendance and drop-outs, with a view to assessing the influence of these factors in the process of universalisation of school education.

The study was sponsored and financially supported by Planning Commission, Government of India. We are grateful to the Commission for providing us the opportunity to undertake study on a subject of high academic interest and crucial policy significance.

The study has been primarily based on a sample survey of schools and households in selected areas in the four districts - Pithoragarh, Sitapur, Hamirpur and Gonda - of Uttar Pradesh. Our colleagues P.S. Garia, Yaminul Hasan, S.D. Rai and Y.P. Singh shared the responsibility of organising the field work for collection of data; and preliminary processing of data. S.K. Ghosh and B.K. Bajpai assisted in the processing of computer out-put. We are thankful to all these colleagues for their valuable assistance.

MS ASHRAP

TS PAPOLA

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CHAPTER - I

School Education in U.P.: A General Overview

Uttar Pradesh. the largest state of our country with a population of about 11.09 crores (census 1981) constituting 16.2 per cent of India's population, suffers from a number of problems, of which educational backwardness is one. According to 1981 census the percentage of literates in the state was 27.38 (38.87 per cent and 14.42 per cent among males and females respectively), as against 34.80 per cent in the country as a whole, thus placing the state at 17th positio among the 22 states of the country . No doubt literacy has increased in the state significantly during the last three decades from 17.65 per cent in 1961 to 21.70 per cent in 1971 and 27.38 per cent in 1981. But the overall rate which i quite low in the country also, has remained still lower in the state. The women population of the state has remained particularly backward in the field of education and their progress has been very slow as compared to male population. The literacy rate among male population during census 1961 was 27.3. It increased to 31.5 in 1971 and to 38.87 in 1981 while the rate for female population was only 7.0 in 1961. and increased to 10.55 in 1971 and 14.42 in 1981.

¹Gupta, Ravindra, Director Census Operations U.P., Provisional Population Statistics, Paper 1, 1981, March, 1981.

Progress of Educational Facilities at School Level in U.P.: 1950-51 to 1978-79

With the inclusion of the provision of free and compulsory education for all children upto the age of 14 years in the Directive Principles of the Constitution as a responsibility of the states the issue of universalisation of education became an important element of state policy at the central and the state levels. This objective was to have been achieved by 1960 but 'in view of the immense difficulties involved, such as lack of adequate resources, tremendous increase in population, resistance to the education of girls. large numbers of children of the backward classes. general poverty of the people and the illiteracy and apathy of parents. it was not possible to make adequate progress in primary education by that time. The Education Commission while emphasizing the importance of free and compulsory education for every child had suggested that all the areas should be able to provide five years of good and effective education to all the children by 1975-76 and seven years of such education by 1985-86. The Commission did not emphasize only the increase in enrolment but also stressed equally on reducing wastage and stagnation and improving the quality of education imparted in primary schools3.

National Council of Educational Research and Training Education and National Development, Report of the Education Commission, 1964-66. 1971, P. 267.

³ Op.cit., pp.267-268

The State of Uttar Pradesh has been trying hard to achieve the goal of universal education at primary level since Independence. Besides, efforts have been made to improve the quality of education and check wastage and stagnation. A brief survey of the efforts with regard to universalisation of education and improvement in the quality of education imparted in schools over the years is presented below:

Budget allocations

We find the budget for primary education in the state during 1946-47 was 121.71 lakh which increased to 13,420.71 lakh in 1978-79, i.e. an increase of over 100 folds during a period of thirty two years. The budgets for different years indicate growing emphasis on primary education. The table below shows the share of primary education in the total budgets an education of different years and per year per student expenditure.

The following tables in this section have been prepared on the basis of data provided in 'Shiksha Ki Pragati' 1978-79, published by the Directorate of Education, U.P.

Table -11

Percentage share of Primary Education in the Total Budget for Education and Per Student per Year Expenditure in Uttar Pradesh

Year	Share of Primary Education (%)	Per Student Expenditure (Rs.)
1950 - 51	45.05	10.80
1960 - 61	47 .83	18.28
1965 - 66	39.24	17.45
1973 - 74	42.96	51.06
1978 - 79	52.03	99.20

It is evident that the share of the primary education in the budgets for 'all' education in U.P. has increased over the years. It is significant that after the promulgation of Constitution the share of the primary education was significantly increased and more attention was paid towards improving the quality of education as is evident from the per year per student expenditure. The efforts have continued throughout the period of twenty-eight years.

Schools

During the year 1946-47 there were 1,850 recognised
Middle (Senior Basic) and 20,048 primary (Junior Basic)
schools out of which the rural areas of the State had
1,199 (64.81%) and 16,501 (82.11%) Senior and Junior Basic
Schools respectively. The number of Senior and Junior Basic
Schools increased to 11,428 and 60,999 respectively during

the year 1978-79, out of which 73.80% of Senior and 88.09% of Junior Basic Schools were in rural areas. The percentage increase in the number of schools during the different succeeding periods are shown in the following table:

Table -1-2

Percentage Increase/Decrease in Number of Schools in the Succeeding Periods

Year	Increase/Decrease in Number of Schools						
	Senior Ba	sic Schools	Junior Basic School				
	Total (%)	In Rural Area (%)	Total (%)	In Rural Area (%)			
194 <u>6</u> -47 - 1950 -51	54.27	65.47	57.94	43.69			
1950 -51 - 1960 -61	51.89	64.91	25.34	48.89			
1960 -61 - 1965 -66	41.96	51.28	50.30	53.69			
1965 -66 - 1973 -74	63.73	52.97	5.73	1.41			
1973 -74 - 1978 -79	13.42	11.38	8.71	10.87			

It is seen that the increase in the number of Senior and Junior Basic Schools both was substantial during 1946-47 to 1950-51 as the number of Senior and Junior Basic Schools increased by 54.27 per cent and 57.94 per cent respectively. However, the highest percentage of rise in number of schools, Senior and Junior Basic, is found in the period of 1965-66 and

1973-74 and 1946-47 and 1950-51 respectively. After this period fewer new Senior Basic Schools were opened and since 1965-66 the additions of new Junior Basic Schools has been quite low in comparison to earlier periods. However, during the same period the Department of Education had sanctioned 2,047 Junior and 1,038 Senior Basic School, all in the rural areas of the State. The additions were 2.96 and 9.08 percent of the total Junior and Senior Basic Schools respectively. The new schools increased the share of the rural areas by 3.36 per cent and 12.31 per cent among the Junior and Senior Basic Schools respectively.

However, the strategy in the VI Five Year Plan calls for a Junior Basic School at a distance of 1.5 km. in plains and at one km. in hill areas and in all those habitations where population exceeds 300; and, a Senior Basic School within a radius of 3 km, and in all those habitations of a population of 800. To achieve this objective it is roughly estimated that about 8000 additional Junior Basic Schools will be required in the State. The number of additional Senior Basic schools required is likely to be much larger, as there are over 72000 habitations which at present do not have a SBS within a radius of 3 km,

According to a survey conducted in 1978 there were 13,982 rural habitations having a population of 500 or more but no primary school within a walking distance. About 1500

Junior Basic Schools were needed in urban areas. The same survey highlighted the necessity of 6,725 additional senior basic schools in only the unserved rural areas of the State⁵. These shortcomings support our conclusion that the number of existing schools was not fully adequate to meet the requirements of the school going age children of the State.

Teaching Staff

The number of teachers in Senior Basic Schools increased from 14,505 in 1950-51 to 61,685 in 1978-79 and that number of teachers in Junior Basic Schools from 70,299 in 1950-51 to 2,41,298 in 1978-79. The increase in the strength of teachers in Senior Basic Schools since 1946-47 was 442.0% and 325.27% since 1950.51. In Junior Basic Schools the strength has increased by 470.19% since 1946-47 and by 243.25% since 1950-51. The percentage increase in the number of teachers during the different succeeding period are presented in Table 3:

⁵ Government of U.P., Planning Department: Draft Sixth Five Year Plan 1980-85 (Review) Vol.I, pp. 468 - 469.

Table -1.3

Percentage Increase in Number of Teachers in the Succeeding Periods

Year	Increase in Number of Teachers				
	Senior Basic %	Schools Junior Basic Schools			
1946-47/1950-51	27.45	66.12			
1950-51/1960-61	60.04	40.90			
1960-61/1965-66	54.21	70.19			
1965-66/1973-74	59.32	39.37			
1973-74/1978-79	7.95	2.71			

It is seen that the rise in the number of teachers in Senior Basic Schools was steady upto the period of 1960-61 after which the percentage of increase declined. The number of teachers in these schools was 11,381 in 1946-47 which increased to 14,505 in 1950-51, 23,259 in 1960-61, 35,867 in 1965-66, 57,142 in 1973-74 and 61,685 in 1978-79. The strength of teachers in Junior Basic Schools during 1946-47 was 42,319 which increased significantly to 70,299 in 1950-51, 99,054 in 1960-61, 1,68,577 in 1965-66, 2,34,939 in 1973-74 and 2,41,298 in 1978-79. The period between 1960-61 and 1965-66 was most important in terms of growth of educational facilities at the Junior Basic level, as a large number of additional schools were opened and teachers appointed.

It is also clear that the State of Uttar Pradesh has concentrated on improving the quality of teaching by inducting a large number of teachers during 1950-51 and 1960-61 and

1965-66 and 1973-74 at Senior Basic level. At the Junior Basic level the period of such concentration was different, i.e. starting just after Independence and containing upto 1973-74. The appointment of teachers in a relatively larger number has increased the average number of teachers per school in the State from 2.2 teachers per primary school in 1950-51 to 3-5 in 1978-79. Similarly, the average number of teachers per Senior Basic School increased from 5.1 in 1950-51 to 5.4 in 1978-79. The pupil-teacher ratio stood at 49 for the Junior and 27 for the Senior basic schools in 1978-79.

Enrolment

The enrolment of children in 6-11 years and 11-14
years has gone up many folds since 1946-47 because of

(a) rise in the population of these age groups, and (b) and
intensive drive for universal enrolment. During 1946-47
about 15.76 lakh children in 6-11 years and 2.48 lakh in
11-14 years age group were enrolled in shhools. The number
of students in the two age groups in 1950-51 rose to 27.27
lakh and 3.48 lakh respectively. The figures for 1978-79
indicate 118.75 lakh children in 6-11 years and 16-53 lakh in
11-14 years age groups were enrolled in Junior Basic and
Senior Basic Schools respectively. The quantum of increase
in enrolment during different periods are presented in Table 14:

Table -1.4

Percentage Increase in Enrolment in Succeeding Periods

Year	Senior Basic Schools (%)	Junior Basic Schools (%)
1946-47/1950-51	40.47	73.09
1950-51/1960-61	57.93	45.16
1960-61/1965-66	178.94	121.99
1965-66/1973-74	49.66	31.35
1973-74/1978-79	12.27	2.88

The data shows that the decade 1960-61 to 1965-66 witnessed a concerted drive to enrol a large number of children belonging to the school going age groups. The periods between 1950-51 and 1960-61 and 1966-67 to 1978-79 show significantly lower percentage of additional enrolments in both stages of education. The reason may be lack of sufficient infrastructure to cope with a large population of children in these periods. However, enfolment in Senior Basic Schools has increased by 567.02 per cent from 1946-47 and by 374.85 per cent from 1950-51 per cent. At the Junior Basic level enrolment of children during the same periods has increased by 653.74 per cent and 335.45 per cent respectively.

Achievements from 1950-51 to 1978-79 : An Analysis

During the period of twenty eight years i.e. from

1950-51 to 1978-79, the State had achieved considerable
success in achieving the goals of universalization of
education among children of 6-14 years age group. The number of

Senior Basic Schools, during the period had increased by 300.42% and that of Junior Basic Schools by 116.53%. The number of teachers in the two levels of schools increased at a faster rate, by 325.27% and 243.25% respectively, thus leading to an increase in the number of teachers per school. The enrolment of children during the period, increased by 374.85% in Senior and 335.45% in Junior basic schools, faster than the number of teachers, thus increasing the pupil-teacher ratio, which is already high as compared to most other states of the country. The situation in regard to the teachers per school and students per teacher is shown in the following table:

Table 1-5

Average Number of Teachers per School and Average Number of Students per Teacher

Year	<u>Senior Basic</u>	Schools	Junior Ba	sic Schools
	Teachers per School	Students per Teacher	Teacher per School	Students per Teacher
1950 - 51	5.1	24.0	2.2	38. 8
1960 - 61	5.4	23.6	2.5	40.0
1965 - 66	5.8	27.4	2.8	52.1
1973 - 74	5.7	25.8	3.7	49.1
1978 - 79	5.4	2 6. 8	3.5	49.2

Despite an increase in number of teachers by 325.27
per cent in Senior Basic Schools during the period the average

number of teachers per school had declined after 1965-66. The pupil-teacher ratio in both the Senior and Junior Basic Schools had gone up after the year 1960-61. It, therefore, suggest that the recruitment of teachers in both the Senior Advols and Junior Basic through somewhat commensurate with the number of additional schools opened has been less than proportionate to the increase in enrolment. Enrolment has, of course, increased at a faster pace than the number of schools, thus leading to an increase in the number of students per school as seen in Table 6. Though the number of students per school is not very large, yet the conditions and facilities in most schools do not seem sufficient to cope with the needs of increasing enrolment.

<u>Table -1-6</u>

Average Number of Students per School

Year	Senior	Basic	Schools	Junior	Basic	Schools
1950 –51		122		8	5	
1960 -61		127		9	9	
1965 -66		160		14	6	
1973 -74		146		18	1	
1978 -79		145		17	2	

Condition of Schools

A good school building is considered significant in attracting the children. At present, the conditions of a large number of school building in the state are, unfortunately,

far from satisfactory. There are a large number of Junior
Basic and Senior Basic Schools without buildings and the existence of even pukka buildings do not give correct picture of their candition and capacity as a large number of them are very old and dilapidated and their covered space is highly unsatisfactory. Most of them require heavy repairs. Besides buildings, most of our schools also lack sufficeent furniture and equipment.

According to a survey conducted by the Directorate of Education, U.P., in 1978 the schools were housed in different types of buildings, as shown in the following table.

Table17: Schools According to Type of Building

TYPE	of Building	Junior I	Basic Sc	hools	Senior	Basic So	hools
		Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
1.	Open Space	10,177	07	10,247	1,093	15	1,108
2.	Tents	5		5	4		4
3.	Thatched	1,055	12	1,067	247	4	251
4.	Kachcha	2,822	148	2,970	488	15	502
5.	Partly Pukka	5,296	416	5,700	1,202	105	1,309
6.	Pukka	42,235	5,891	48,142	7,122	1,754	8,880
	Total	61,590	6,537	68,127	10,156	1,893	12,049

Source: Government of U.P., Directorate of Education: IVth
Survey of Education in U.P., Position as on 30th
September 1978. The data pertaining to the conditions
of schools discussed in the following pages were
obtained from this report.

According to the above mentioned survey 90.41 per cent and 84.29 per cent of the total number of Junior and Senior Basic Schools respectively were in the rural areas of the State. The condition of a large number of their buildings were highly unsatisfactory. 16.52 per cent of the Junior and 10.76 per cent of the Senior Basic Schools were run in open space and, therefore, there was nothing to protect the students and teachers from hot weather and rains. Another 6.3 per cent of the Junior and 7.28% of the Senior Basic Schools had only nominal shelter as they were housed either in tents, thatched or <u>kuchcha</u> structures and 8.6 per cent of the Junior and 11.84 per cent of the Senior Basic Schools had only partly <u>pukka</u> buildings. Most of the 68.57 per cent of Junior and 70.13 per cent Senior Basic Schools which had <u>pukka</u> buildings were also in need of heavy repairs.

Besides a reasonable building the school is expected to be well equiped with teaching aids and have certain facilities which attract the children and also help in their development. We find that a large percentage of schools were not fully equipped with basic infrastructure like mats/furniture and black boards. Among the Junior Basic Schools only 55.97 per cent had adequate mats/furniture for students in 1978. The percentage of the Senior Basic Schools having similar conditions was 71.28. Only 53.9 per cent of the Junior and

75.72 per cent of the Senior Basic Schools had adequate number of black boards and 90.7 per cent 92.2 per cent of the respective categories of schools had continous supply of chalks. About one-third of the Junior and 55.4 per cent of the Senior Basic Schools had text books Banks and only 23.3 per cent of the Junior and 59.6 per cent of the Senior Basic Schools had libraries.

We find that the percentage of schools with highly inadequacy in respect of the above facilities was larger among the rural schools than the urban schools. For example, among the JBS's 54.4 per cent had adquate mats/furniture. 51.8 per cent had sufficient number of black boards. 90.6 per cent were getting continuous supply of chalks and 21.8 per cent had libraries. In comparision, among the JBS's of urban areas, 71.1 per cent had proper mats/furniture, 73.5 per cent had adequate number of black boards, 91.5 per cent were receiving chalks in time and 37.8 per cent had libraries. Similarly, among the SBS's of urban areas 83.8 per cent had sufficient mats/furniture, 68.9 per cent had the required number of black boards, 94.9 per cent were getting continous supply of chalks and 76.0 per cent had libraries, whereas the percentage of similar schools of rural areas was 69.0, 73.3, 91.7, 56.6 per cent respectively. A larger percentage of rural schools, both Junior and Senior Basic, however, had Text Books Banks as compared to the schools of urban areas; as 35.1 % of Junior and 58.5 per cent of Senior Basic Schools of these areas had this facility as against 23.5 per cent of Junior and 38.9 per cent of senior basic schools of the urban areas.

Facilities available in a number of schools include play ground, games and sports materials, drinking water and urinals/lavatories within premises of the school.

Among the incentives were mid-day meals, free uniform, free text books and attendance scholarships. About half (48.5%) of the Junior Basic Schools had play ground but only 12.4 per cent had any sports material. The facility of drinking water was available in 44.1 per cent schools whereas only 14.9 per cent of the Junior Basic Schools had urinals/lavatories facilities. As regard various incentives 1.80 per cent of the schools had the provision of mid-day meals; 0.4 per cent free uniform; 19.6 per cent of free text books and 2.1 per cent attendance scholarships for their students.

An analysis of the distribution of these facilities and incentives in rural and urban areas indicate a pattern similar to the infrastructural conditions of schools of the two areas discussed earlier. Except in the case of play ground (which is relatively available in the villages) and the incentive of free text books all other facilities and incentives are available in a larger percentage of urban schools. For example, only 10.2 per cent of the Junior Basic

Schools in of rural areas had games and sports materials; 41 per cent had drinking water and 10 per cent urinals/ lavatories within their premises. Among the incentives, 7.6 per cent of the schools had the provision of mid-day meals, 0.1 per cent of free uniform and 0.6 per cent of attendance scholarships for their students. In comparison, 32.8 per cent of the Junior Basic Schools in urban areas had sports materials. 74.1 had drinking water and 61.4 per cent urinals/lavatories within premises. Of the various incentives. 12.8 per cent of the urban schools provided mid-day meals. 0.6 per cent free uniform and 0.7 per cent attendance scholarships. A larger percentage of schools of the rural areas i.e. 49.9 had play grounds as compared to the schools of the urban areas i.e. 35.3 per cent. Similarly, 13.6 per cent of the schools of rural areas had provision for distribution of free text books as against 11.1 per cent of urban schools.

The pattern of rural urban differences in Senior Basic Schools is also similar to that of the Junior Basic Schools. Although playground was available in 66.9 per cent of the Senior Basic Schools of the rural areas as against 59.9 per cent of the urban areas the percentage of shhools having sports materials was 54.8 and 71.6 respectively in the two areas. Among the various incentives free text books were available to the students of a slightly higher percentage of rural schools

(19.7%) against the students (18.7%) of the Senior Basic Schools of urban areas. All the other incentives were available in a higher percentage of schools in the urban areas as against the schools in the rural areas. For example, 5.4% of the Senior basic schools in urban areas had the incentive of midday meals, 1.3% of the free uniform and 3.3% of the attendance scholarships as against 1.2%, 0.3% and 1.9% of the rural schools having similar incentives respectively.

Thus, it is evident from the above analysis that the schools, Junior and Senior Basic both, located in urban areas had a preferential treatment. The urban areas have additional advantage of private schools and the rural population have to depend mostly on the schools run by the Basic Shiksha Parishad the local bodies and, therefore the schools of these areas, need more attention of the authorities. An additional point relating to the preferential treatment of the urban schools worth mentioning here is that the average number of posts sanctioned per Junior and Senior Basic School in rural areas was 3.34 and 5.03 respectively. In urban areas the average was 5.53 and 8.87 in the two levels of schools respectively.

Enrolment Rates :

The Population in 6-11 and 11-14 years age groups in the state was estimated at about 1.34 crore and 74.71 lakh

respectively in 19796, constituting 13.14 per cent and 7.32 per cent respectively of the total population. During the year 1978-79 a total of 118.75 lakh children were enrolled in 69.244 Junior Basic Schools (Class I -V) and 16.53 lakh in 11,428 Senior Basic Schools (Class &VI - VIII) of the state'. Thus, 88.62 per cent of the estimated population in the age group 6-11 years and 22-13 per cent in the age group 11-14 years were enrolled in Junior Basic and Senior Basic Schools respectively. Among the scheduled castes the population of children in the school going age groups of 6-11 and 11-14 years was estimated at 28.99 lakh and 16.15 lakh respectively in 1979. Of them 18.62 lakh (64.2%) and 3.46 lakh (21.4%) were enrolled in Junior and Senior Basic Schools respectively. The girls belonging to the scheduled castes were lagging behind not only the boys of their own castes group but were also behind the girls of the total population. The enrolment ratios of girls belonging to these castes at Junior Basic and Senior Basic

Government of India, Ministry of Education and Culture, Planning, Monitoring and Statistics Division: Selected Educational Statistics - 1978-79, New Delhi, 1980, p. 7.

Government of U.P., Directorate of Education,
Shiksha ki Pragati - 1978-79, pp.30-31.
According to Selected Educational Statistics - 1978-79
(Ibid) Enrolment Ratios of population in the two age groups were 90.7 (110.3 boys and 69.7 girls) and 36.7 (51.8 boys and 19.9 girls) respectively.

levels were 33.5 and 6.6 as against 93.2 and 34.8 of boys of the same castes group at the two stages of education respectively.

In the total population, the enrolment ratios of girls were 69.7 and 19.9 respectively.

Analysing the position of Uttar Pradesh we find that the problem of non-enrolment among the total population is not alarming as compared to the position at the All-India level, yet it was found that girls were far behind the boys in enrolment at both levels of school education. The problem of Scheduled Castes girls with regard to enrolment is still more accute. Similarly, the enrolment ratio of total population in 6-11 years age group in U.P. was higher as compared to the country as a whole, but, the ratio of Scheduled Castes children was significantly low and among them the girls were far behind.

Government of India, Ministry of Education and Culture, Planning, Monitoring and Statistics Division: Selected Educational Statistics - 1978-79, New Delhi, 1980 pp. 8, 45-46.

Table -18: Enrolment Ratio in Classes I-V & VI- VIII of Schools*

		Classes	I-V (6-11	years)	Class V	I-VIII (11:	-14 years)
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
A	Total Popu- lation						
	All - India	100.2	67.8	84.5	49.4	26.0	38.0
	U.P.	110.3	69.7	90.7	51.8	19.9	36.7
В-	Scheduled Castes						
	All - India	102.9	55•7	79.9	37.7	14.5	26.5
	U.P.	93.2	33.5	64.2	34.8	6.6	21.4

At the senior basic level enrolment ratio of boys was higher than at the all-India level, but that of girls was significants lower in U.P. than in the country as a whole. The girls belonging to the Scheduled Castes in U.P. at had a much lower enrolment ratio than the all India average.

Drowp-Outs

Besides enrolment, the State is found to suffer from a retention relative disadvantage in terms of the relation of the children at studies school through primary education. According to conducted by the State Institute of Education, out of every 100 children enrolled in class I only 20 are able to get through class V.9

^{*}Source: Government of India, Ministry of Education and Culture, Planning, Monitoring and Statistics Division: Selected Educational Statistics - 1978-79, New Delhi, 1980, pp. 29 and 48.

⁹Gofvernment of U.P. Planning Department: Draft Sixth Five Year Plan 1980-85 (Review), Vol. I, p. 470.

Further, out of every 100 children admitted to class I only 39 reach class V,31 reach class VI and 27 class VIII. The following are the comparative figures of the drop-out rates in successive classes (I-VI) in U.F. and India. 10

Class	Drop -	<u> </u>
보다 중요한 경험 등 경험 경험 등 보고 있다. 	U.F.	India
	46.3	36.1
I	25.6	17.2
III	16.0	15.5
1 V	13.9	14.4
	18.8	15.9
VI	10,2	12.6

Another set of data indicate that only 19.2% of those enrolled in class I in 1970-71 had reached class VIIIn 1976-77 in U.P. as compared to 26.9% at the all-India level. Among those enrolled in Class II during 1970-71 only 30.1% reached class VIII in 1976-77 as against 36.8% at the all-India level. 11

Chauhan P.R. Director of Education, U.P.: Elementary Education in our State paper presented at the Seminaryon Elementary and Adult Education, Lucknow, April 1979. p.8.

Government of India, Ministry of Education and Culture : A Handbook of Educational and Allied Statistics, New Delhi, 1980.

The reasons for a high rate of drop-out include poverty of the people which compels the parents to utilize their children for augmenting family's meagre income; over crowded classromms, hetrogenous groups and lack of sufficient ancillary facilities and equipment in schools 12. Poverty of the people, no doubt, discourages parents for sending their children, particularly the girls, to school. But, the extent and the type of educational opportunities available to them also condition their attitude towards the education of their children. In this context the distance and conditions of the school are equally significant. In order to achieve the goal of universalization of primary education a target to reduce the distance to the Junior Basic School to one-and-a half kilometer in plains and to one kilometer in hill areas by opening new schools has been fixed. To check heavy drop-out in the first year of schooling . class I and II were treated as one for the purpose of examination as no student is detained in class I on the basis of his/ her performance in examination .

¹² Chauhan P.R., Director of Education, U.P. : Elementary Education and our State, op. Cit., p. 8.

CHAPTER II

THE PRESENT STUDY : OBJECTS AND METHODS

It is evident from the account given in the previous chapter that despite significant progress in making provision for universalisation of basic education the State is still far from the achievement of its objectives. The rate of literacy in the State continues to be low : about seventy-two percent of the people are still illiterate. It is estimated that about 12 per cent of the children belonging to the age group 6-11. corresponding to the Junior Basic stage of education. never enter the schools. Of those who enter the schools only small percentage complete the school education. The provision of a school within walking distance, was estimated to be available in the case of 69 per cent of the children by 1977-78. But, this provision even if made available to all does not by itself ensure universalisation of enrolment. And ensuring retention of enrolled. children in the education system has been found a more difficult proposition.

While non-availability of facilities in the form of school and teachers is an easily identifiable factor causing non-enrolment, non-attendance and drop-out, a set of socio-economic factors which keep the children away from the schools are not always easy to decipher. But it is important to identify these factors and analyse their effects on the non-availment of facilities, and wastage in the educational process. This excercise will help emolve strategies for removin constraints in the fulfilment of

the objective of universalisation of basic education.

The Present Study : Background

study

The present, examines the problems of non-enrolment. non-attendance and drop-out in the school education in Uttar Pradesh in the above background. It has been estimated that for full coverage of all children in the age group 6-11. additional enrolment up to the end of the year 1984-85 i.e. by the end of the Sixth Five Year Plan, will have to be 84.60 lakh (9.22 lakh boys and 39.38 lakh girls). The Plan document conceded that an additional enrolment to the tune of 48.60 lakh children will be impossible to achieve during the VI Plan period even if all the unserved areas get provided with the schooling facilities because various socio-economic reasons would hinder. as in the restfull utilization of these facilities. target of additional enrolment of 25.0 lakh children in 6-11 years age group was, therefore, fixed for the Plan period. This will cover about 83.35 per cent of the estimated population of children by 1984-85. Similarly, in the age group 11-14 years the plan targets indicate coverage of only 46.81% of the estimated population in senior basic education.2

The problem of retaining the children at school through primary stage of education seems particularly acute in the State. As pointed out earlier only 19.2 and 30.1 per cent of

²Government of Uttar Pradesh, Planning Department: Draft Sixth Five Year Plan 1980-85 (Review) Vol. I, p. 469.

those enrolled in class I and class II in U.P. reach class VII and VIII respectively. The corresponding percentages at all-India Level are estimated as 26.9 and 36.8 respectively. In the case of girls and economically and socially depressed groups of population, one finds that enrolment is especially low and dropp-outs relatively high. The problem of non-attendance also seems to follow the same differential pattern among boys and girls and children belonging to different socio-economic groups.

Objectives and Hypotheses

Our study therefore aims at estimating enrolment, attendance and drop-outs, and examining the household as well as school related causes of poor enrolment and attendance and high drop-out, in general, and in case of the girls and scheduled castes/tribes population in particular, specifically, the study was planned with the following objectives in view:

- estimating the extent of (a) non-enrolment,
 (b) non-attendance, and (c) drop-out in the elementary stage of education;
- identifying socio-economic groups which have relatively greater degree of these phenomena;

³Government of India, Ministry of Education and Culture: A Handbook of Educational and Allied Statistics, New Delhi, 1980.

- iii) Identifying the household factors responsible for the phenomena of non-enrolment, irregular attendance and drop-out;
- iv) exploring the level of impact of the conditions of schools on these phenomena; and
- v) examining the effectiveness of alternative strategies for achieving the objectives of universal enrolment and retention in elementary education.

Enrolment figures that are available from the official sources, no doubt, provide a fair idea of the relative intensity of the problems in different districts and regions. But they suffer from some basic shortcomings. Figures of enrolment in primary stage of education (class I-V), most of the time, are found to exceed the number of children in the corresponding age group 6-11 years. The official explanation given is the presence of children below 6 years and above 11 years in the primary schools and the percentage of such children is assumed to be around 10. It, however, looks that even after applying the correction, in many districts, the enrolment to age group population ratio exceeds one. It is generally Auspected that the condition of a minimum number of students for state assistance to school also tend to inflate these figures, through non-genuine enrolment. May be, it is also one of the reasons as to why there is found to be a very heavy drep-out in the first standard.

Name of Districts		Enrolment in age- group 6-11 years	Drop-out* Name of Rate Distts.			Enrol- ment in age- group 6-11 years	Droup- out* Rate
1.	Allahabad	90.57	0.64	27.	Jhansi	87.47	0.76
2.	Azamgarh	91.22	0.75	28.	Aligarh	90.94	0.58
3.	Behraich	92.06	0.85	29.	Bareilly	87 .3 8	0.66
4.	Ball ia	91.05	0.62	30.	Bijnor	89.66	0.72
5.	Basti	92.65	0.75	31.	Badaun	91.49	0.82
6.	Deoria	91.32	0.69	32.	Agra	91.04	0.37
7.	Faizabad	91.30	0.71	33.	Bulandshahar	90.94	0.57
8.	Ghazipu r	91.99	0.68	34.	Etah	90.51	0.71
9.	Gonda	92.76	0.82	35.	Etawah	89.79	0.54
10.	Gorakhpur	92.40	0.66	36.	Farrukhabad	90.87	0.60
11,	Jaunpur	91.77	0.64	37。	Manipuri	90.21	0.61
12.	Mirzapur	90.18	0.77	38.	Mathura	90.86	0.54
13.	Pratapga rh	92.08	0.72	39.	Meerut	89.70	0.47
14.	Sultan pu r	91.49	0.73	40.	Moradabad	91.09	0.76
15.	Varanasi	90.64	0.56	41.	Muzaffar/nagar	83.04	0.64
16.	Almora	97.51	0.71	42.	Pilibhit	89.59	0.76
17.	Pithoragarh	75.23	0.51	43.	Rampur	88.39	0.82
18.	Dehradun	86.86	0.03	44.	Saharanpur	89.04	0.77
19.	Garhwal	91.72	0.57	45.	Saharanpur	91.80	0.77
20.	Chamoli	91.57	0.58	46.	Barabanki	91.45	0.84
21.	Nainital	85.83	0.51	47.	Fatehpur	91.01	0.71
22.	Tehri-Garhwal	90.43	0.75	48.	Hardo1	91.32	0.76
23.	Uttar Kashi	88.89	0.68	49 .	Kanpur	89.17	0.39
24. 25. 26.	Banda Hamirpur Janlaun	90.12 62.93 86.08	0.77 0.78 0.28	51. 52. 55.	Kheri Lucknow Raebareli Sitapur Unno	90.65 89.98 91.84 86.39 90.49	0.80 0.57 0.83 0.80 0.69
				Over-all		90.68	0.67

^{*} Enrolment in classes VI-XF in year t_5 divided by enrolment in classes I-V in year t_6 .

In general, the factors accounting for non-enrolment, non-attendance and drop-out should be common, but the situation suggests that to some extent different factors account for non-enrolment and drop-out. Districts with the lowest enrolment rates are not necessarily also with highest drop-out rates. In fact districts like Goda and Bahraich which show high enrolment rates (90 per cent or more) in 1977-78, were found to retain only 17-18 per cent of their primary school pupils in secondary stage as well. On the other hand Pithoragarh and Dehradun with only 75 and 87 per cent of enrolment of children in the age-group 6-11 in the primary schools, were able to retain 49 and 97 per cent of them in the secondary schools (table : 2.1). Thus, the factors accounting for non-enrolment and drop-out, do not necessarily seem to be the same or even if they are the same the magnitude of their impact seems to differ in the case of the two phenomenon.

The factors believed to be affecting enrolment, attendance and continuation in elementary education are too oftrepeated to need elaboration. It may, however, be necessary to mention the more important of them here. Generally, the economic status of the household in terms of income level is considered to be the central variable affecting availment of educational facilities. Even though education at the elementary level may be free, the opportunity cost of the

children's time spent in school is high as they can supplement the low family income by working elsewhere; by looking after their younger brothers and sisters or attending to the other household chores. In case of girls, the need to work at home seems still higher; and the social taboos, inhibitions and indifference toward education may further add to the phenomena of non-enrolment, absence and drop-out of girls from schools. Besides, the economic situation. however, the social factors have been observed in certain areas to drive children belonging to certain social groups.

Family anironment including educational levels of orner Harijan, bonded labour etc. out of schools. / family members and the size of family may also play a significant part. Availability of school and school environment obviously is important, but it needs to be seen as to how important is there role vis a vis household characteristics. A general proposition that can be advanced in this connection is that the facility of a well-equipped school may be a necessary, but not a sufficient condition for the households to enrol their children, ensure their regular attendance and keep them in the schools till they finish school education.

Method and Sample

We have attempted, there, not only to estimate the extent of non-enrolment, non-attendance and drop-out on the basis of information available from the official and school sources, but also to investigate into the socio-economic characteristics of the households to identify the factors accounting for these phenomena. The secondary data collected through a number of publications of the Government of Uttar Pradesh and the Government of India and from various offices particularly, the office of the Director of Education, U.P., helped us in having an overview of the situation. The primary data was collected from two sources : the households and the selected schools. The households were interviewed to primarily identify the socio-economic factors accounting for non-enrolment, nonattendance and drop-out phenomena. The schools were surveyed with the help of an inventory for eliciting information regarding the general conditions of the school, enrolment in different classes, class-wise drop-outs and regularity in attending schools in different classes, The head master of these schools were also interviewed with the purpose of having their assessment of the situation.

The sample of schools and households was spreaded over the following districts selected on the basis of different patterns of problems of non-enrolment and drop-outs.:

Statement : 1

Dis	trict	Enrolment Ratio (Primary enrolment as % of population 6-11 age group)	Drop-out (Inverse of the ratio of pupils in classes Vi-X in period t ₅ to pupils in classes I-V in period t ₀)
1.	Gonda	High	High
2.	Hamirpur	Low	High
3.	Sitapur	Low	High
4.	Pithoragarh	Lov	Lov

It may be noted that the selected districts not only revealed different enrolment and drop-out characteristics but were also spreaded over the four different regions of the State: Eastern, Bundelkhand, Central and Hill.

In each of the above districts two Blocks were chosen on the criterion that they have similar characteristics and conditions of basic education as in the district as a whole. The selection of blocks was done with the help of the education officials of the respective districts. In each of the blocks a cluster of 4 junior basic and senior basic schools were selected on a random basis for the survey for schools.

As regards the selection of villages for households survey we selected villages covered by the selected Junior Basic schools and survey their households on a census basis. The size of household sample was expected to be around 800 per block on the assumption that on an average a Junior Basic School covered about 200 households. In addition, a relatively smaller urban area was also selected in each of the districts where again a sample of 3 schools (2 Junior Basic and one Senior Basic schools) and 200 households were selected on a random basis. The total coverage of the rural household in over sample was as follows:

Statement: 2

Dis	tricts		Block	No. of Villages	Households
1.	Gonda	a. b.	Utraula Jhanjhari	9 8	8 72 80 7
2.	Hamirpur	a. b.	Kavrayi Kurara	4	786 824
3.	Sitapur	a. b.	Khairabad Aleya	11 8	820 789
4.	Pithoragarh	a. b.	Gangolihat Berinag	8 7	806 832

The four towns selected for the survey were: Utraula (Gonda), Kurara (Hamirpur), Pithoragarh (Pithoragarh) and Khairabad (Sitapur), Thus, the total sample (rural + urban) in the above mentioned 4 districts comprises of 52 schools, and 7,336 households in 59 villages, and 4 towns.

Some Characteristics of the Districts of Study

The four districts selected for the survey of schools and households were: Gonda, Hamirpur, Pithoragarh and Sitapur. Some of the significant characteristics of these districts may be of interest and, therefore, are mentioned in the following paragraphs:

The district Goda had the largest population (28.96 lakh) followed by Sitapur (23.36 lakh), Hamirpur (11.93 lakh) and Pithoragarh (4.79 lakh) and the four districts constituted of 6.23 per cent of the population of Uttar Pradesh. The population per sq. km. in Sitapur (407 persons) and Gonda was higher (394 persons) from that of the State as a whole, i.e. 377 persons

whereas the district of Hamirpur and Pithoragarh, (an hill district) had a very low density of population, i.e. 167 and 54 respectively (census 1981).

The percentage of literates was highest in Pithoragarh (37.88) and lowest in Gonda (16.95). In Hamirpur 26.19 per cent and in Sitapur 21.17 per cent of the population was literate. Thus, in comparision with the percentage of literates among the population of the State (i.e. 27.38) atleast the districts of Gonda and Sitapur may be considered as educationally backward. A significant point pertaining to the spread of literacy among the four districts emerged from the figures of census 1971 and census 1981 was that the district of Gonda made very little progress in the field of literacy over the last decade. At the time of census 1971 only 14.04 per cent of the population was literate in Gonda as against 21.70 percent in the State and it increased only to 16.95 per cent as against 27.38 per cent of the population of the State. In comparison, the percentage of literates in Pithoragarh increased from 30.19 per cent in 1971 to 37.88 per cent in 1981, in Hamirpur it increased from 20.25 per cent to 26.19 per cent and in Sitapur from 16.45 per cent to 21.17 per cent during the same period.

The number of Junior Basic Schools per lakh of population in the State was 62.46. As against the average for the State, Pithoragarh had 180.58, Hamirpur 88.18, Gonda 67.85 and Sitapur 52.83, lowest number of schools per lakh of population among the

four districts. Considering the State of Uttar Pradesh as a whole, the number of senior basic schools per lakh of population was 10.31. Among selected districts, Pithoragarh (like in the case of Junior Basic Schools) had highest number of schools, per lakh of population, i.e. 25.05 and Gonda had the lowest, i.e. 6.56. The other two districts of Hamirpur and Sitapur had 11.0 and 11.06 schools respectively.

In Table 2.2 we present the position of basic education in the four districts, as reported for the year 1978-79:

Table - 2.2

Number of Schools, Teachers
and Students in the Districts

D	istricts	No.of Senior Basic	Schools Junier Basic	Number Sendor Basic	oî	Teachers Junior Basic	stude	
1.	Gonda	190	1,965	921	4,	713	24,194	12,881
2.	Pithoragarh	120	865	545	١,	842	8,682	54,988
3.	Sitapur	257	1,234	1,321	3,	846	22,682	2 45,065
4.	H ami rpu r	132	1,052	3 99	2,	496	7,608	83,800

Certain indicators of the situation in respect of the basic education in the different selected districts and blocks are given in the Table 2.3. As regards the relative situation of the four <u>districts</u> we notice the following significant features.

1) In terms of the school to population ratio Pithoragarh is best least served among the four districts, followed by Hamirpur.
Sitapur stands poorest in this regard, and Gonda compares

well with the state average. It may, however, be noted that the first two districts are very sparsely populated because of which the larger network of schools is essential to serve a given population size, than in the case of more densely populated districts of Gonda and Sitapur. This is more particularly true of the hill district of Pithoragarh where population density is estimated at 54 as against the state average of 377 in 1981. The number of schools per lakh of population is accordingly much larger than the state average. Gonda district, however, seem particularly poorly served so far as the senior basic school per lakh of population is concerned.

- 2) Junior basic schools in all the selected districts suffer the general defeciency in terms of number of teachers. These schools in all districts on an average have 2.5 teachers each. Senior basic schools, however, seem to be better equipped in this regard.
- Enrolment size of the schools in generally large, around
 200 ffor junior and 120 for senior basic schools in Gonda
 and Sitapur, and relatively small (below 100 both in junior
 and senior basic schools) in Pithoragarh and Hamirpur.
 This is largely a reflection of population density of
 respective districts as noted earlier.
- 4) Similarly in Sitapur and Gonda, junior basic schools have a relatively large number (over 60) of students per teacher;

3\$\forall Table - 2.3

Some Characteristics relating to Basic Education in Selected Districts and Blocks

7.	0	Ÿ	+	u	N		
Density of person per 29 k.m.	Literacy % (1961)	Pupil- Teacher Ratio J.B.S. SBS	Students per J.B.S. S.B.S.	No.of Tea- chers per J.B.S. S.B.S.	No.of S.B.S.per Lakh of Popula- tion	No.of,per Lakh of Popula- tion	Item
377	21.70	49.2	172 145	さいよう	10.31	62.46	.
458	25.0	48.5 10.4	44 621	2.45 4.29	ن 8.3 3	40.43 54.08	Jhan- jhari Block
£07	14.9	47.8 20.67	997	2.34	5.10	54.08	Utra- ula Block
394	74.04	87.6 26.3	210 127	2.40 4.85	6.56	67.85	Gonda Dist- rict
	28,22	32.3 19.5	82	2.52 4.18	26.19	178.57	Bent- Nag Block
	27.70	29.51 15.23	88	2.78 4.36	23.73	145.76	Pithoragarh Gango- Dist- lihat rict Block
ħ	31.87	29.9	25	2.13	25.05	180.58	
3	7 15.96	7 0 0 0 0 0 0	128 57	3.23	7.77	58 . 93	Aleya Block
320	30.14	34.6 17.7	117 199 46 88	N.W.	5 • \$9	.93 28.91 52.83	Sitapur Khai- Dist- rabad rict Block
\$	15.96 30.14 16.45	63.7 17.2	89	2.10 2.10	5.69 11.00		##F
\$: :	34.96 19.1	8 8	2.38 2.45	76.42	105.97	Kura- ra Block
Ē	16.34	57.6 57.1	1 77	1.91 2.31	10.66	107.42	Hamirpur Kav- ragi Bleck
\$	20.25	5 }	38	9.9 83	17.06	© 66 ÷	朝
		ransa k	ath to		and the second s		

the number for junior basic schools in Pithoragarh is only 30, and for Hamirpur 34. The pupil-teacher ratio in the senior basic schools is not different from one to another district the highest in Gonda is 26 and the lowest in Pithoragarh is 16.

Let us also have a look at the condition of schools buildings in different district. Here we have information from our own survey regarding the type of building for the junior and senior basic schools in different districts which is summaried in Table 2.4.

<u>Table - 2.4</u>

Type of Buildings of Senior and Junior Basic Schools (in Percentage)

Type of Building		Distri Gonda		ragarh	811	apur	Hâmi	r pu r
	JBS	SBS	JBS	SBS	JES	SBS	JES	SBS
Space (No. building)	32.52	19.60	3.22	9.09	24.95	12.69	16.56	5.68
Thatched	6. 78	2.51	1.67	23.64	1.78	•	3.67	•
Kachcha	0.78	6.03	0.90	3.64	0.71	11.15	6.21	3.98
Partly Pukka	3.60	5.53	2.57	4.55	1.71	14.23	12.42	21.59
Pukka	62.32	66.33	91.63	59.09	70.85	61.92	61.15	68.75

Note: JBS & SBS denote Junior Basic School and Senior Basic School respectively.

According to the survey conducted by the Directorate of Education in 1978 there were 15.05 per cent of Junior and 9.25 per cent of Senior Basic Schools without building and they were

working in open space. In comparison, we find that about one-third of the junior basic schools in Gonda and about one-fourth in Sitapur were working in open space. Against 70.67 per cent of pukka buildings of junior basic schools in U.P. Pithoragarh had 91.63% of such buildings and Sitapur 70.85% but Gonda (62.32%) and Hamirpur (61.15%) have fairly such, Pithoragarh had the lowest presentage of pukka buildings low percentage of similar buildings of senior basic schools i.e. 59.09%, among the four districts whereas the percentage of similar buildings at the state level were 73.70. The percentage of pukka buildings in the rest of the three districts was also below the state's percentage. Pithoragarh had a significantly large percentage of thatched buildings, i.e. 23.64 as against the state's 2.08 per cent.

Some Characteristics of Sample Schools

As mentioned earlier, a total of 52 schools, junior basic and two senior basic schools in the rural, and 2 junior basic and one senior basic schools in urban areas were selected for study in each of the four selected districts. The characteristics of there schools are summarised below.

Enrolment Size and Pupil-Teacher Ratio

The average size of enrolment in the schools in our sample worked out as follows: Junior basic schools 110 in rural areas, and 172 in urban areas and senior basic schools 102 in the rural and 138 in the urban areas. The overall averages suggest neither overcrowding nor too small a size for a viable school. Fifty per cent of the junior basic schools are, however, with less than

100 pupils. Such schools constitute 87.5 per cent of the sample in Hamirpur district, but only 12.5 per cent in Sitapur. The average enrolment in Hamirpur turns out to be much below the average, 70 only whereas in Sitapur it is as high as 163. These differences seem to be primarily reflecting the relative density of population in the two districts. The other two districts show an enrolment average per schools quite near the overall average. The rural senior basic schools and urban schools have been dealt with here in aggregate for all the four districts, as the number in each case is rather too small to allow inter- district comparisons.

The pupil-teacher ratio averages to 32 for rural junior basic schools as well as for the rural senior basic schools, and 37 for the urban junior basic and 21 for urban senior basic schools. These ratios again could be considered quite reasonable. Interdistrict variations in the case of junior basic schools are also not found very significant, though most schools in Hamirpur and Sitapur have a pupil teacher ratio of less than 30. Half the schools in Sitapur also have a similar pupil-teacher ratio despite a larger size of enrolment on an average. On the other hand, Pithoragarh and Gonda districts have higher than average pupil-teacher ratio despite smaller size of school enrolment.

Building, Space and Rooms

All the 52 schools except two junior basic schools, one each is Sitapur (rural) and Gonda (wrban), had pucca buildings. The

average covered space per pupil calculates to 11.37 square feet, in the rural junior basic schools, but it is only 3.72 square feet in schools in Sitapur and 18.20 square feet in Pithoragarh district. In the rural senior basic schools the covered space available is 13.28 square feet and in urban senior basic schools 26.72 square feet. It is rather low at 6.76 square feet in the case of urban junior basic schools.

Most junior basic schools, around 72 per cent, have two or three rooms in the building; around 12 per cent have only one room and nine per cent four or more rooms. Form this viewpoint the school seem very inadequately equipped. For there are five classes in every junior basic school and one wonders how these classes are supposed to be held at the same time, can run simultaneously if there are only two or three rooms in most schools. The situation is found only better in the senior basic schools. The situation is found to be the worst in Hamirpur district where all junior basic schools in the rural areas have either one or two rooms, and somewhat better in Pithoragarh where three-fourths of the schools have at least three rooms.

Most schools have over 50 square feet per student of total school area, covered and open. The average area in the rural junior basic schools is around 82 square feet per student, the figure for urban junior schools is 52 square feet, for rural senior basic schools 122 square feet, and for urban senior basic schools 91 square feet per student. Junior basic schools in Sitapur district (rural) are

found most deficient in this respect also as the total space available with them averages to 12 square feet per pupil, as against 157 square feet in Pithoragarh which reveals the best situation in this respect. Despite the availability of open space in most cases, 50 per cent schools had no playground. Schools with no playground constituted 50 per cent among the junior basic schools in rural areas, 36 per cent among the senior basic schools in rural areas, and 30 per cent among the junior basic schools in the urban areas. All urban senior basic schools of course, have playgrounds.

Seating facilities and Educational Aids

Most schools, particularly in the rual areas, have no chairs or stools and desks for the students. A few chairs and tables are therefore the use of teachers. The students sit on tatpattis in the classes. For an average strength of 110 students per rural junior basic school, they have 8 tatpattis per school. Even if assuming that a tatpatti is long enough to accommodate 10 students, the number of tatpattis seems inadequate. Besides, 16 per cent of these schools have no tatpattis at all. The situation is found to be particularly deficient in case of Hamirpur district where 37 per cent schools have none and rest between 3 and 5 tatpattis each. The average per school being only 2.62 tatpattis. The situation is relatively better in Pithoragarh and Gonda districts; and in the urban areas in all districts.

It is also intriguing to note as to how five classes in a junior basic school could be run without a similar number of black-boards

which are an essential aid for instruction at this level. Most junior basic schools in the rural areas had one to three blackboards, but 19 per cent had none and only 16 per cent five or more each. In the urban junior basic schools one-fourth were without black boards, but half had adequate number, five or more, blackboards, each. Senior basic schools seem somewhat better equipped in this respect as 75 per cent of them had at least three blackboards each. Rural junior basic schools in Sitapur were particularly ill-equipped in this case also, as in other respects. Thirty-seven per cent of them were without blackboards. Situation in Hamirpur was the best with 50 per cent schools having at least four blackboards each. The situation of junior basic schools in rural Sitapur was the worst in respect with school library. None of the schools is the sample in this district had a library or any books for general use; 50 per cent of the junior basic schools (rural) in Gonda were also in the same category. But all the schools in Hamirpur and 75 per cent in Pithoragarh had libraries. The average number of library books per school were 83 in Pithoragarh, 134 in Hamirpur and 78 in Gonda. In the rural areas 50 per cent of the senior basic schools also had no library, while in the urban areas 75 per cent of such schools were found to have libraries. A similar percentage of junior basic schools had libraries in urban areas. while the percentage of rural junior basic schools having libraries in all the four districts was 56. The libraries of the urban junior basic schools had an average number of 144 books. The average figures for senior basic schools works out to 110 for rural and 588 for urban areas.

Aid and Assistance

On aid and assistance to students we could get information about only two items: expenditure on Applied Nutrition Programme and Book Aid in the form of supply of free books. Two-thirds of the junior basic schools in rural areas and 37 per cent of them in urban areas did not operate the programme. The rest of the urban junior basic schools spent at least Rs.4.00 per student per month. In the rural schools the expenditure mostly varied between Rs.2.50 to 3.50 per student per month. The programme seemed operative on a low key everywhere, but its operation was found at the lowest level in Pithoragarh where only one out of the eight rural schools spent anything on it, and somewhat significant in Gonda where three out of eight schools spent on this item.

The situation in case of book aid was only slightly better, insofaras 41 per cent of the junior and 50 per cent of the senior basic schools in rural areas, and 37 per cent of the junior and 50 per cent of the senior basic schools in urban areas provided free books to some students. Among the junior basic schools in rural areas 59 per cent did not provide this aid even to a single student. Of the 13 schools where aid was given, the percentage of receipients was upto 20 per cent in seven cases, 20 to 50 per cent in 4 cases and over 50 percent in 2 cases. Fifty percent of the schools in Pithoragarh gave free books to students, the average of students was at least 20 per cent in each case and about 50 per cent in half the cases. In Sitapur only 25 per cent of the rural junior basic schools give free books, and none to more than 20 per cent of the enrolled students.

The last aspect we attempted to look at was the domicile status of the headmaster of the school on the assumption that the regularity and closeness of attention that he can pay to the school and the students would be better if he was locally based instead of commuting long distance to the school and back home. We found that the headmaster of 25 per cent junior basic schools came from the same village where the school was located. Another 44 per cent came from within the block, while 31 per cent came from places outside the block. Hamirpur and Pithoragarh schools were found better placed in this regard, as in the former district over 60 per cent of the headmasterrs were from the same village. and another 25 per cent from the same block and in the case of the latter district these percentages were 37 and 50 respectively. None of the Sitapur and Gonda schools in the sample had their headmasters from the same village where the school was located, 75 per cent of them came from outside the block in case of Sitapur schools and 25 per cent in case of schools in Gonda. In the rural senior basic schools the native place of headmasters was outside the village in all cases, within the block in 50 and outside the block in the rest 50 per cent cases.

The Sample Households

As stated earlier a total of 7,336 (6,538 rural and 800 urban) households were covered in field investigation. However, on scrutiny of the Interview Schedules a number of cases (109 rural and 2 urban) had to be excluded from the analysis as the responses recorded in them were either vague/incomplete or contradictory. Thus, the final

sample analysed for the study consisted of 7,225 househod heads (6,427 rural and 798 urban). Some characteristics of these households are summarised below:

Among the sample from the rural areas 88.16 per cent were Hindus, 11.78 per cent Muslims and 0.06 per cent belonging to other religious groups. The Scheduled Castes/Tribes people constituted of 28.41 per cent of the total sample. About one-third (34.07%) of the families had no literate member whereas 4.75% had only literates. Among the families who had one or more educated members 35.68 per cent had the highest educated member having received education upto class V, 8.65 per cent in between class VI and VIII, 9.21 per cent in between class IX and X, 4.79 per cent in between class XI and XII and 2.85 per cent upto graduation or above.

The family occupation (according to the highest number of family members engaged in an occupation) of 34.11 per cent of respondents was cultivation, of 9.62 per cent was agricultural labour, of 5.52 per cent was service, of 2.19 per cent trade, of 3.16 percent handicraft/cottage industry and of 10.42 per cent other occupations. About one-third (34.98%) of the families had members equally divided into different occupations, namely cultivation, service, trading, handicrafts etc.

The income-wise distribution of families indicate the total annual income of 52.53 per cent of the families was less than Rs.3000. Those having an income in between Rs.3000 and 6000 were 33.48 per cent while 10.22 per cent of the families were earning

between Rs.6000-9000, 2.37 per cent between Rs. 9000-12000. Only 1.40 per cent of the families had an income of above Rs. 12000 per year.

In the sample 1,824 families did not have any cultivable land. The remaining i.e. 71.62 per cent, families had land-holdings of different sizes, varying from less than an acre to over 10 acre. Among the families who had cultivable land 26 per cent had less than oneé acre 35.6 per cent in between 1.0-2.5 acre, 16.55 per cent in between 2.5-5.0 acre, 10.84 per cent in between 5.0-7.5 acre, 3.32 percent in between 7.5-10-0 acre and 7.69 per cent above 10 acre. Thus, the majority (61.60%) of the families with cultivable land had their holdings from less than one to 2.5 acre.

The sample selected from the urban areas of the four districts consisted of 65.79 per cent Hindus, 33.46 per cent Muslims and 0.75 per cent of other religious groups. The respondents belonging to the Scheduled Castes/Tribes constituted of 23.56 per cent of the total sample.

As regards the level of education of the respondents families we find 7.14 per cent of the families had all illiterate members and 15.66 per cent had one or more members who were literate without schooling. The highest education in 27.19 per cent of the families was upto class V, in 8.4 per cent of the families between class VI and VIII, among 12.53 per cent between class IX and X, among 13.28 of the families between class XI and XII. The families with one or

more members who had obtained education upto graduation or above constituted of 17.79 per cent of the total sample.

The main occupation, according to the number of workers, of a large percentage of families (47.12) was equally divided into two activities. The occupation of 11.65 per cent of the families was cultivation while 11.03 per cent were agricultural labour. The families of 5.14 per cent of the sample belonged the 'Artisans' categories while 8.52 were 'Traders'. Those depending on 'Service' were 8.77 per cent whereas 7.77 per cent of the families had other different occupations.

About one-third (33.08%) of the families had a total annual income of less than Rs.300/- while 30.2 per cent had in between Rs.3000-6000. About one-fifth (19.3%) of sample families were earning between Rs.6000 and 9000 and 8.15 per cent between Rs.9000 and 12000. The families having an annual income of Rs.12000 or more, therefore constitute of 9.27 per cent of the sample.

Even in the urban sample about 25 per cent families had some cultivable land. Since the towns selected by us for survey were small rural areas, it is quite understandable that a sizable number of households have cultivable land, in nearly villages. Among them 41.21 per cent had less than 2.5 acre, 11.06 per cent had in between 2.5-5.0 acre and 17.59 per cent in between 5.0-7.5 acre. The size of land holdings of only 5.53 per cent of the families was in between 7.5-10 acre whereas about one-fourth of the families (24.62%) had cultivable land of more than 10 acre size.

Chapter III

Enrolment

I. Estimates of Enrolment Ratios

Estimates of enrolment made in this study are based on the data collected from the sample households. Enrolment ratios for different segments of the sample, as aggregations of the household figures are calculated as follows:

Enrolment ratio for Number of 6-14 years old children the sample enrolled Population in the 6-14 years 100

the sample segments being districts, rural and urban areas, male and female population. The estimates arrived for the various segments are presented in Table 3.1.

(a) Rural Areas

In our sample of 6427 rural households, there were 7761 children in the school going age group (6-14 years): 4515 boys and 3246 girls (2191 households had no children in the relevant age group). Of the boys 72.67 per cent were enrolled while of the girls only 50.68 were enrolled. The overall enrolment to school-going-age population ratio thus worked out to 63.47 per cent.

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Table 3.1
Enrolment Situation

Area	1	Male		Fen	ale			Total	
	PSGAG	ENR	Br	PSGAG	ENR	Er	PSGAG	ENR	1930
I. Rural:									
Pithoragarh	1290	1185	91.86	1005	669	56.57	2295	1854	80.78
Hamirpur	1045	646	61.82	672	236	35.12	1717	882	51.36
Gonda	1160	711	61.29	760	260	34.31	1920	977	50.89
Sitapur	1020	749	73.43	809	480	59.33	1829	1229	67.20
Total	4515	3281	72.67	3246	1645	50.68	7761	4926	63.47
II. <u>Urban</u> :	905	781	86.30	652	505	77.45	1557	1286	82.59
(Combined) Total			74.94			55.16			66.66

PSGAG = Population in the school going age group (6-14 years)
ENR = Enrolment in schools (6-14 age group)

 $Er = \frac{ENR}{GSGAG} \times 100$

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ENR = Enrolment in schools (6-14 age group)

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Wide variations are found in the enrolment ratio among the four selected districts: the highest ratio was observed in Pithoragarh at 80.78 per cent by Sirapur at 63.47 per cent. Hamirpur and Gonda both recorded an enrolment ratio of about 51 per cent. The inter district variations in enrolment ratios of male and female children shawed similar pattern. except that for the girls, Sitapur recorded the highest enrolment ratio at 59 per cent, Pithoragarh following closely at 56.57 per cent.

Age-Specific Enrolment :

13

The enrelment to population ratio did not vary in any set pattern among the various ages of children (Table 3.2). Of the children aged 6, 7 and 8 years, around 63 per cent are enrolled, of those aged 9 years, however, a higher percentage about 70, are enrolled, but of the 10 year elds the enrolment is only 62 per cent. Of those aged 11 years, again 67 per cent are enrolled. The lowest enrolment ratio (60%) is found among 13 years elds. Enrolment ratios at different ages are found to vary significantly and also to decline more or less consistently with age in the case of girls. Among districts, however, such a relationship was found to hold clearly in the case of hilly district of Pithoragarh only. It is seen that of the girls aged 6-8 years 52 per cent are enrolled, among 9-11 year olds 50 per cent are enrolled, but of there in 12-14 years, the enrolment

ratio is only 43 per cent. In case of boys no such tendency is seen in enrolment ratio to vary with age.

Usually one would expect that a 6 year old child would be enrolled in class I and 7 year old in Class II and so on and a 14 year old in class IX. They are, however, mostly found in one class lower than their age. No doubt, most 6 year old children are in class I, but most 7 year old are also in class I; most 8 year old in class II, most 9 year old in class III and so on. This lag, if it can be so called, seems in operation equally for boys and girls.

(b) Urban Areas

In the urban areas, the 798 sample households had 1557 children in the school going age group (6-14 years): 905 boys and 652 girls (50 households had no children in the relevant age group). The enrolment to population ratio among these children worked out to 83 per cent - 86 per cent among boys and 78 per cent among girls. (Table 3.1) One finds a tendency, even though not very significant, for the enrolment ratio to decline with increase in the age of children. Uptill the age of 11 years enrolment ratios fluctuate with change in age by one year, but at a high level, between 81 to 91, but after 11 years of age the ratio remains low between 70 to 77 per cent. This change mainly

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Ŗ	5	74.01 57.57 66.66	99.99	74.8	52.30	74.20 52.30 64.60	95.74	95.74 84.72 90.96	90.96
	18:03	78.07 67.03 73.17	13:13	72.71	2.8	72.71 51.23 63.22	83.45	83.45 76.34 80.53	80.5
	8.9	6.98 66.13 78.08	8.8	81.17	54.62	81.17 54.62 69.50		91.17 84.50 87.76	87.78
	.82	1.82 69.93 66.94	66.94	2.2	73.75 45.64 61.71	61.71	92.59	92.59 79.06 86.59	86.59
is raytai - V	Ŋ	53.88	53.80 53.73	8. 5.	78.10 53.66 67.27	67.27	87.09	87.09 74.41 81.90	81.9
oest ar ad 1990.	<u></u>	37.93	57.93 66.07	74.46	74.46 45.67 62.23	62.23	13.43	79.13 72.22 76.47	76.4
india seni an	đ,	.84 47.06 55.90	8.8	72.5	72.15 40.51 59.58	8.8	85.36	85.36 67.21	77.62
	Ą	.29 52.63 58.00	8.8		5.3	77.05 41.79 64.91		77.61 53.12 70.58	5

reflects the behaviour of enrolment of girls by different ages, while the enrolment of boys continues to be high, though some fluctuations are noticed. The highest enrolment to population ratio among the boys is found in the case of 7 year olds (95.74%) and the lowest in the case of 14 years (77.01%). Among girls the higher ratio (86.29%) is seen in the case of 6 year olds and the lowest (53.13%) in the case of 14 year olds. In fact, one finds an almost continuous decline in the enrolment ratios of girls with increase in age. Thus of the 6-7 year old girls 85 per cent are enrolled, of 8, 9 and 10 years olds, 80 per cent are enrolled, of 11 and 12 years old 73 per cent are enrolled and of 13 and 14 years old only 62 per cent are enrolled.

The age-class of enrolment relationship seems rather discontinuous in the urban areas (Table 3.2). The 'lag' that is seen in the rural areas - in terms of a generally six-year difference in the age and class enrolment - is not necessarily the rule in the towns. Here most 6-year olds are enrolled in class I, most seven year in class II, most 8 year olds in class III. But then most 9 year old are not in class IV, but in class III. Again most 10 year old are in class V, most 11 year old in class VI, but most 12 year old are also in class VI. Most 13 years old are, however, in class VIII as also are most 14 year old. The pattern is found similar for boys as well as girls.

Caste and Enrolment

(a) Rural Areas

The 6427 sample rural households were distributed among different castes and communities as follows: 34 per cent high caste Hindus, 25 per cent Backward castes, 28 per cent scheduled caste/tribes, 12 per cent Muslims and a small number of other communities. In terms of the enrolment to children population ratio, the high caste Hindus came on top with a figure of 80 per cent, followed by Muslims (58%). Backward castes and SC/ST households performed almost similarly with a ratio of 53 per cent each. The differences were thus found to be sharp between the high caste Hindus on the one hand, and all other castes and communities on the other. So far as the latter were concerned, the different groups showed little differences among themselves.

The differences were, however, more marked in case of the enrolment of girls. In the case of boys the enrolment ratios varied between 91 per cent among high caste Hindus (leaving aside a few case of 'other' religious groups where overall enrolment was 67 per cent, for boys 100 per cent and for girls zero per cent), and 63 per cent among Backward castes. Muslims and scheduled castes and tribes families showed an enrolment ratio of 67 per cent are each boys. The high caste Hindu families had 67 per cent of their school going age girls enrolled.

the percentage was 47 for Muslim families but only 37 and 31 for the Backward castes and scheduled caste and tribe families. Here again, the main difference is found between the high caste Hindus and the rest of the communities. Muslims, contrary to general belief, are found to be doing better than lower caste Hindus, in the matter of enrolment of female children of their families in the school.

It may also be noted that while of the high caste Hindu households with school going age children 71 per cent sent all such children to school, the percentage of households sending all their children to school was 50 among Muslims, 46 among scheduled castes/tribes and 44 among the Backward castes.

(b) <u>Urban Areas</u>

Differences in enrolment situation among different caste and community groups were much less marked in the towns than in the villages (Table 3.3). The urban sample of 798 households consists of 37 per cent high caste Hindus, 33 per cent Muslims, 24 per cent scheduled castes and tribes and 6 per cent Backward caste Hindus. Fifty families had no children in the relevant age group. The percentage of enrolled to total children in the age group 6-14 years is as high as 97 per cent in the case of higher caste Hindus. But even the lowest figure for any community, in this case among Muslims, is 66 per cent. The SC/ST households show a figure of 87 per cent and Backward

Caste and Enrolment

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	Market Hale Bengle Wets Male registe 10	Motes	Male	emale	Total	Male	emerie	10.00	Male	Female	Total	tal Male Female Total Male Female Total Male Female Total	
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0.00 91.35 56.9	56,90 25,89 45,05 58.71 10,88 42,28	\$.0 0.0	8.7	10.88	42.28	75.75	99°99	75.75 66.66 71.49	63.20	36.68	63.20 36.68 52.77	90.56 66.66 80.43	8
0.58 62.74 35.7	55.76 19.27 41.86	41.86	8	50,58 14.28	38.02			67.68 47.44 58.92		24:31	67.53 31.77 53.04	91.16 79.71 86.68	98
	80.00 60.00 73.33 63.63 41.21 53.88	8.52	63,63	£ 2	53.88		64,28	78.03 64.28 71.72		86°97	67.11 46.98 58.27	69.41 61.08 65.66	9
			8,8		400,00	Barbara (P. 1874)			300,00		99.99	66.66 83.33 100.00 91.66	9

castes of 80 per cent. The differences, here are not very much marked between the girls and boys. While the highest enrolment-population ratio for boys shown by upper caste Hindus is 98 and the lowest, among Muslims is 69 per cent, the highest for girls is 95, among upper caste Hindus and lowest 61 per cent among Muslims again.

It may be noted that 67 per cent of the urban households with school-going age children sent all their children to school, while in the rural area this percentage was 55 only. In the urban areas the percentage of families with enrolment of all children in the 6-14 age group in the school was found 94 in case of high caste Hindus, 67 in case of Backward castes, 81 per cent in case of scheduled castes and tribes, but only 55 in the case of Muslims. Thus the major incidence of non-enrolment in the urban areas was among the Muslims. It should be admitted that our estimates of overall enrolment is dampened because of the higher than proportional representation of Muslims in the sample.

Family Characteristics and Enrolment

(a) Rural Areas

Assuming that the size composition and other attributes of the household have some impact on the enrolment or otherwise of the children in the schools, we looked into a few household characteristics in association with the enrolment situation. The first of such characteristics was the size of the household. Size by itself may not have a causal relationship with enrolment of children in the school, but to the extent it also determines the dependency ratio and other variables it can influence enrolment indirectly. We have, therefore, taken dependency ratio, sex ratio, age composition particularly in terms of the number of very young and very old, number of housewives for this analysis.

The family size shows no significant and continuous association with the enrolment ratio. Households with 4 to 8 members show an average percentage of enrolment to children population ranging between the narrow bounds of 61 to 65. Those with nine or more members, however, have a ratio of 69 per cent, and those with three members of 66 per cent. One-member households obviously have no school going age children. Of those with twomembers, a small percentage (8) have children of whom only 55 per cent are enrolled. It looks that the two-member families with a school-going age child, and thus only one adult earner, would find it difficult to afford enrolment of the child in the school. The three member families with school going age children on the other hand seem to find it easy to enrol the children in the school. One can assume that they have only one child, and two adults, probably both earners, thus the dependency ratio is low. A family size larger than 3 seems to be accompanied by higher dependency ratio, thus a lower capacity on the part of the families to send their children to school, except, of course,

very large families with proportionately large number of earners. It is significant to note that the highest enrolment ratio among girls is shown by two-member families and the lowest by 4-member families. The highest ratio for boys, on the other hand, is found among families with 3 members and the lowest among those with 2 members. Thus, though there is no overall relationship between family size and enrolment ratio, the differential behaviour of households of similar size in respect of education of boys and girls is somewhat intriguing.

To a certain extent, some clue to this behaviour is found in the association of dependency ratio with enrolment of children. Overall, here again, the two variables are not found to have any consistent relationship. Families with different dependency ratios hardly show any inter-group variation in the enrolment behaviour. Among the seven ranges of dependency ratio between over 4.00 to between 1.00 and 1.50, the enrolment ratio varies between 63 and 66 per cent only. With very low dependency ratio of less than 1.00, enrolment ratio also declines to 53 per cent. Similar consistency of enrolment ratio among family groups with different dependency ratio is noticed in case of the enrolment of boys: for seven dependency ratio ranges from over 4.00 to 1.00 to 1.50 the percentage of enrolment to total boys in 6-14 age group, the inter-range variation is only between 74 and 76.5. But in the case of girls, a distinct difference is noticed

Table 7.5

Dependency Ratio and Enrolment

(Percentage)

		-	9 4 9	V C								Urban	Urban Areas	
	Title , well			Spuce.	MEDITAL CONTRACTOR OF CONTRACT	5	Straour			Total				
		18181	Male	Female	Total	Male	emol.	Total	Wale Remaie	emelle	12301	Male	Wale Female	Total
8	45.53	88 45,52 00,44	30.2%	72.35 39.51 57	0	39.6%	ў 80 80	かって、	3		0 3		86.24 4.38	2
8	378.33	78 77.33 57.88	5	71.51 37.61 58	20.02	12.9%	66,35	76.74 66.35 72.03	2,47	74.10 54.36	\$ 190 190	04.93	84,93 82,43	02.02
8	るが	100 34.61 49.00		57.69 40.00 51	٢ ٢	N: 50	83,83	4.20 62.40	26.37	6.22 52.32	73	8	91.66 61.99	2.2
Ď	¥ %	.15 44.30 58.70		73.46 39.58 60	3	50° 43		90°50 62°80	5 2		S S	800	3.10 39.30	\$ 00 5.00 5.00 5.00 5.00 5.00 5.00 5.00 5
9	23.03	.65 23.07 45.74		62,04 22,30 47	47.63	72,89	0. 0.	\$.99 \$.99	2.2	75,32 W. 75 62,74	62,74	30.50	7.°2.	2.62
Ó	8	.91 17.30 37.16		61.16 33,33 51	ないで	8.2		23.30 83.75	23	76.72 49.75 65.82	3000	07.95	02.50 02.60	50
Ř	19.67	34 19.67 34.30 43.56 17.54 34.	iş İş	3.2		80°00	10 10 10	23.92 26.63	S	69.03 41.94 53.46	3,5	50	3,0	8

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			tal maie remaie Total Male remale Total Male Female Total	Male remale Total	Mole Female
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93.44 55.61 75.91	61.82 30.88 49.41	64.88 36.29 52.96	73.40 54.92 65.20	73,54 44,65 61,07 87,22 77,82 83,33	87.22 77.82 8
91.47 99.70 76.41	59.84 31.39 48.35	64.95 35.82 54.01	79.25 64.83 73.45	72.04 46.08 61.30	78.57 70.14 74.45
98.15 64.94 82.52	47.56 32.78 41.25	80.76 35.80 63.50	73.17 81.81 76.19 77.62 49.80 65.97 74.00 65.11 69.89	77.62 49.80 65.97	74.00 65.11 6

The presence of the old persons in the household, on the other hand, seems to affect the enrolment situation positively. While households with no person of the age 60 years and above send 61 per cent of their children to school, those with one and two old members, send 71 and 75 per cent of children to school. The relationship seems to operate both in case of enrolment of boys as well as girls. It seems that the old members of the household are found useful in looking after the security of the household and care of the very young children if any, and in the event of there being no such old members, some of the school age children have to stay back to perform these tasks.

Similar legic could be applied to the number of housewive in the household and one can expect the enrolment of girls to be particularly related inversely with the presence of housewives in the family. While no consistent relationship is four between the number of housewives and enrolment so far as the overall enrolment and enrolment of boys is concerned. In the case of girls, however, it is noticed that the enrolment ratid increases consistently with the number of housewives in the household. Households with no housewives send 52 per cent of their school going age girls to school; with one housewife the percentage is 46, with two 49, with three 52, with four housewives 57 and with five housewives 64.

Table 2,7

Presence of Persons >60 years in the Family and Enrolment

				a a											
1901	am Lypur					C:	Sitabur			Ten Ca	Statistics and the state of the		Araba		
9	e Telle	Female Total Male Femals				8	o remor			FOE STO	(B)	270	Wale Remele	5 2	
80	88	,82 33,39 51,33	8	63.50 33.61 51.71		25.2	70.22 58.10 64.56	S S	3	3	72.45 46.44 61.33		65.89 77.34 82.32	S S	
R	N S	39 40.21 56.52		77.77 34.81 60.36	3		74.37 65.46 70.71		81.69 56.40 71.27		2		94.11 90.38 92.50	8	
2	88	.12 42.85 48.67	3.02	78.94 39.13 63.93	0	2	91.42 82.75 86.88	3	00	i E	81.63 60.24 73.41	3. 3.	ec.16 69.44 78.08	88.08	
				8.00	3			***************************************	***	S		3	8 9	K.	
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	•	•	*	*	98	488	100.00 100.00	8	***************************************	Š	(80.00) (60.00)	*	- B-B-B-B-B-B-B-B-B-B-B-B-B-B-B-B-B-B-B	\$	

(b) Urben Areas

In the urban areas, if very small families with one or two members are ignored (in fact there is no one member family and there are only 18 two member families in the urban sample of 798 families), a negative relationship is generally observable between the family size and enrolment of children in the schools. Families consisting of 3 or 4 members send 93 per cent of their children to school, those of 5 members send 86 per cent, those with 5-7 members 30 per cent and large families with 9 or more send only 76 per cent of their school going age children to school. This kind of tendency is visible in the case of enrolment of both boys and girls (Table 3.4).

No consistent relationship is, however, noticeable between dependency ratio of the households and enrolment of their children(Table 3.5). The number of young children in the family, however, seems to adversely affect the enrolment of school going age children(Table 3.6). Households with no child below 5 years of age enrol88 per cent of their children, 90 per cent of males and 84 per cent of females, but those with one such child enrol 83 per cent, 87 per cent males and 78 per cent of females. With two and three children the overall enrolment ratios fall to 74 and 70 per cent. Presence of old persons in the family is, however, not found important in urban areas to determine enrolment of children (Table 3.7). In any case, 87 per cent of the urban sample house-

holds have no person above 60 years of age, and such households enrol 82 per cent of their children in the schools. Nine per cent have one old person in the family and enrolment ratio in their case is 93, and 4 per cent households with two old persons each send 78 per cent of their school age children to schools. The presence and number of housewives in the family also has no consistent relation with the enrolment, not even with that of girls, in the urban areas (Table 3.8).

Education, Occupation and Income of Households and Enrolment of Children

(a) Rural Areas

There is found to be a consistently positive relationship between the highest level of education attained by any member of the family. The households which have some member(s) with a graduate degree send 92 per cent of their school age children to schools. Those with 11-12 years of schooling as the highest level of education of any member show an enrolment ratio of 83 per cent among their school age children. The enrolment ratios decline to 80, 73, and 52 once the highest level of education of any family member(s) goes down to high school, middle or primary level respectively. Households with no literate member or only with informally literate members, however, have 62 and 61 per cent of their children enrolled in the schools. This pattern of relationship is found in case of enrolment of both boys and girls.

Highest Education in the Family and Enrolment

(percentage)

Urban Areas	Male Female Total
	nda Sitapur 10tal Nole Female Total

26 97.77 96.96 97.43 95.65 87.95 92.22 96.07 97.36 96.62

3.88 81.48 87.10 71.56 79.94 95.55 93.13 94.51

7.65 82.81 85.57 91.07 72.20 82.70 96.26 88.50 93.21

1,46 75,90 86,58 53,88 73,32 78,66 80,82 79,72

3.08 56.05 64.29 34.45 51.09 71.20 53.33 63.72

1.66 46.34 77.40 42.54 62.38 89.05 71.73 82.09

100 100.00 69.76 44.00 60.29 90.00 83.33 87.50

Is there any relationship between the occupation of the household and children's enrolment? We have related enrolment ratios with the occupation of the head of the family, family occupation defined as the one engaging the largest number of family members, and also as one providing largest income to the household. Around the half of the sample household have cultivation as the occupation of the household head; 11 per cent have agricultural labour, 12 per cent 'service', 4 per cent artisans, 4 per cent trading and 12 per cent 'others'. The highest enrolment ratio at 80 per cent is found in the case of households where the heads are engaged in trading, followed by service (78%) and cultivation (64%). Artisan households have an enrolment of 54 per cent and agricultural labour households, the lowest at 45 per cent. The inter-occupation differences are more sharply marked in case of girls' enrolment. Trading families have 82 per cent of their daughters enrolled in the schools and 'service' families 66 per cent. But cultivators have only 47, artisans 40 and agricultural labourers only 24 per cent of their schoolage daughters enrolled.

Similar results are obtained when family occupation is defined as the one engaging the largest number of workers of the household, except that cultivators came up equally with 'traders' and 'service' families in this case. If family occupation is defined as the one from which the largest part of household income

Table 3. C

Occupation of Head of the Fauily and

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		Total.			Total		2 2 0					
\$		47 45.71 63.95	88.8	80.76 52.38 68	3	86.36 64.	46.84 44.48	3	86.19 61.53 75.80	8	95.45 84.00 9	8
5	8	.73 35.00 51.47	6.0	70.97 36.01 57		23 65.27	62,28 67,57	3.2	76.40 47.32	3	94.47 88.97 9	8
***	R	.11 15.38 38.02		41.12 5.71 27		5 3	44.79 53.33	S.	59.32 23.70		93.50 76.78 8	95°46
8	0	,00 18.18 48.38		3	61.11 12.50 46.15	6.83 45.92	24.35	35	63.42 39.55 54.23		74,66 58,82 6	8
8	8	00 60.00 86.20		53.12 73.33	\$ 59.52	74.71 85.29	29 79.35	8		8	83.16 77.39 8	%
8	23	5.71 82.75 84.37		74.39 44.05	8	30.00	64,22 76.41	S	87.38 66.37 77.70		96.44 93.70	S,
2	ÿ	5.12 21.53 42.48		60, 19 27, 14 4	3	2 2	71.42 72.52		62.94 39.44 53.36	\$ \$	63.70 51.88	58,26

is derived, the 'service' families seem most conscious of their children's education with 80 per cent of their children enrolled in the schools, followed by trading families(76%) and cultivators (65%). Artisan families have an enrolment ratio of 53 per cent and agricultural labourers 46 per cent. Here again the differences are sharper in the case of girls' enrolment. Trading families have 76 per cent of their daughters going to school, 'service' families 68 per cent, but cultivators only 45 per cent, artisans 39 per cent and agricultural labourers 28 per cent. That whichever household characteristics adversely influence enrolment, seem to do it with redoubled force in the case of girls' enrolment.

The household income both total and per capita, is the one variable that shows a consistent relationship with enrolment ratio of children in different households. We have distributed the sample of 6427 households in 9 groups of household income, from Rs.15000 and above per annum, to below Rs.1000 per annum, and the enrolment ratio is found to continuously decline from one income range to another in decending order. Thus the highest income households have 87 per cent of their children enrolled, the next group of households 86 per cent, next lower group 78 per cent and so on till it goes down to 53 per cent in the case of the household with the lowest income range, below Rs.1000 per annum. The variations between the highest and the lowest are,

Ramillo Occurs					THE PROPERTY OF THE PROPERTY O	
tion second.	n according to Pitheregarh Flanirour Gonda fworkers Male Yenale Total Male Female Total Male Female	Male Venale Total	Yonda Male Female Total	Male Female Total	Male Penale Total	Male Female Total
Equality Division	91.73 76.81 83.78	74.39 41.71 61.01	S	73,00 59.95 66.61	7 52.29	
Caltivation	94.08 38.53 78.47	64.70 41.24 55.45	73,06 25.59 54.89	73.94 53.15 69.00	84,55 32,22 70,81	00.69 87.34 93.00
Agrication	84.37 17.39 56.36	57.42 21.62 42.28	4,80 12,65 22,35	27.71 45.65 31.27	25.77 28.74.60	92,66 80,95 88,37
Artisan (Including Ostiind:)	100.00 20.00 35.55	60.00 12.50 43.47	45.83 36.36 42.85	61.90 45.50 54.60	39.84 40.21 31.59	69*69 97*09 82*92
Hade Shopbeeping	165 100keeping) 87.50 75.00 81.25	70.00 80.00 73.33 48.14 41.17 45.	46.14 41.17 45.45	73.68 84.61 78.89	67.64 74.39 70.65	81.01 68.33 75.53
Service	100,00 53,84 82,08	75.00 50.00 65.38	76.92 59.72 70.25	87.71 72.15 81.34	84.01 63.63 76.09	95.83 95.46 97.08
Vilens.	92.30 100.00 93.75	31.69 8.51 23.80	50.00 16.94 37.44	91.44 73.61 78.10	50.72 29.26 42.70	57.74 66.66 67.27

Table 5.12
Family Occupation and Enrolment

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(In nercentere)		M2.19	88,88 83,33 86,66	93.42 90.69 92.43	94.95 81.48	78.20 63.82 72.80	5.00	36.41 93.49	70.44 59.42 65.31	
			5	62.14 65.43	3	3	2	8	8	
			66.66 50.00 65.21		55.98 27.54 45.60	38.10 39.49 53.04	75.73 75.88	37.15 67.84 80.29	63,92 44,36 53.02	
	*		3	72.38		2		5	30	
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			0.00 100.00 100.00	35.35 65.24 75.58	58.43 44.55 52.29	60.54 42.59 52.94	N	36.95 69.12 70.97	70.25 66.66 63.75	
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		e ramas	8 8	2	£ €	8	64.70 57.69	8. S.	*	
		37.87	\$. 8	8	M. 15 10.58		25	3	2.2	
			0.00 33.33 68.75 50.00		62 23.37 42.34	12 20.57 57.14 146.15 30.88	6	8	8 21.15 40.91 61.11, 31.36	
			8	53 46.41 61.71	**	S R	57.17 68.773	68.7 5 80.18	\$	
1	Heal	G.	8	Ŋ	S	3	4	8	Ą	

In case of boys the lowest is 68 per cent and highest 90 per cent, while in case of girls the highest is 81 per cent and the lowest 34 per cent. Further the highest enrolment in both cases is shown by the households in the top income range, while the lowest enrolment ratio for girls is in the case of lowest income range, but that is not the case for boys.

Oistribution of sample households by per capita income ranges (7 ranging between Rs.1000 and above and Rs.200-300 per annum), reveals the same relationship somewhat more sharply. Here again, the range of difference between the high and low income households is sharper in case of girls' enrolment than that of boys. The boys' enrolment rates vary between 85 per cent in the highest and 66 per cent in the lowest income range, while that of girls varies between 70 per cent in the top income bracket of households and 35 in the bottom bracket.

(b) <u>Urban Areas</u>

Educational level of the household as indicated by the highest level of education attained by any member of the family is significantly related with the enrolment of the children in urban areas also (Table 3.9). In fact, those households which have any member educated upto high school or above send over 90 per cent of their school age children, both boys and girls, to schools. And other

100.00 77.77 91 6 100,00 100.00 72.72 100.00 75.00 90.00 80.00 85.00 100.00 90.00 80.00 85.00 100.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 100.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 90.00 9	90.00 80.00 85.00 89.74 80.95 86.66 90.00 700.00 94.44 88.88 81.25 85.71 87.75 61.29 77.50 89.14 73.86 78.34 71.05 63.87 67.72 75.91 58.93 65.26	100.00 100.00 100.00 100.00 100.00 100.00
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77.97 89.44 55.78 50.74 55.70 72.49 36.87 58.25 71.05 65.87 67.41 85.23 65.70 35.78 52.52 61.17 28.04 48.21 66.93 53.34	71.05 63.87 67.72 75.91 58.93 65.26	
63.70 33.78 52.52 61.17 28.04 48.21 66.93 53.84		86.86 80.73 84.14
・ 1991年 - 19	66.93 53.34 61.39 69.51 44.99 58.79	76.99 57.44 68.11
0.33 61.11 77.50 54.45 26.61 43.86 58.33 21.42 42.97 68.34 50.84 60.31	62,34 50,84 60,31 67,80 40,32 56,20	83.44 71.73 79.01
9.89 45.86 69.75 65.71 31.44 51.92 50.66 20.00 37.69 58.53 36.70 49.28	58.53 36.70 49.28 74.01 35.06 55.20	83.00 67.35 77.14
5.33 39.80 68.60 68.30 32.63 54.00 61.53 38.88 52.27 56.66 54.54 58.32	56.66 54.54 58.32 72.36 34.15 52.76	84,61 80,00 82,60

Table 5.14

Per Capita Income and Enrolment

(1x percentage)

1													parec _{all}	Loc Wi	percentage.	A)			
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	P1thoragann									Stanur	H	See on the company of the see		Tenon					
1	Male Female Total	- 1	Male remaile	324	Tetal.		Pemale	e Tetal	e i ce ia	Femole	1		Male	i eme le	1 ex-	<u>ः</u>	Comple	e Tetal	d
	97.02 80.62 89.89		7.4%	57,85	73.17 67.85 71.01	8.5	2°8 26°57			76. V 67.83		a N	00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00		32.52	5		2 94.7	
	93.47 78.81 86.71		8	8	71.79 55.00 56.10	7.08	77.08 49.56	98,40	20,27	S		67.22		200	S	8	30.00	8	N
	98.16 78.04 89.52		50.	34,04	60.97 34.04 51.16	8	63.92 33.33	2	200	72.04 50.75	99 (2	33.33		8	69.95	88	8	88.00	8
	97.95 72.00 86.70	O Strongerffens	2,96	40.96 34.88	8	S. 5.	66.45 32.35	20.00		71.83 61,64 66,66	8		8	50° 13	50.17 61.57	2	99.99	E S	Q
	92.72 66.66 81.21		88	22.53	56.80 27.53 46.39	C***	64.73 24.39	8	G	83.13 57.30		9.69		6.53		92.78	8.	3 75.33	2
	89.74 55.65 75.27		3	2	64.94 40.32 55.34	5	53.65 76.59	5.3	S	3		2.0	8	3	67.39 41.62 57.15	0 0 10	5.00	200	N
	92.41 42.44 69.39	(1981, ROPO PROPERTY)	8	8.36	65.76 30.76 51.02	3	6.16.21.83	20.5%	3.5	8 8 5		20.20	5.8	66.07 35.35	500	8	3	Ç	K

households have much lower enrolment ratios, between 60 and 80 per cent.

There are not as wide variations among occupations in the urban areas as in the rural areas in enrolment ratios. The major occupational groups of the sample urban households, according to the occupation of the heads are : service (24%), trading (22%) and cultivation in the rural areas (20%). The households with 'service' as the occupation of the head have the highest enrolment ratio (95%) of their children, followed by those with cultivation as the head's occupation (91%), and trade as head's occupation (81%). A small number are wage earners and 86 per cent of their children go to school and a still smaller number of artisan with 68 per cent enrolment of their children (Table 3.10). Similar pattern is revealed when family occupation is defined as the occupation engaging the largest number of family members (Table 3.11), or as the occupation from which the largest part of family income is derived (Table 3.12). An important difference in the enrolment pattern in the urban areas, from that in the rural areas is that the inter-occupational differences in the enrolment of girls are much less sharp in the former than in the latter. In fact, the inter-group differences in enrolment behaviour are more or less similar in case of boys and girls.

Like in the rural areas, the enrolment of children in different households is closely related with the income levels of

the household - both total and per capita. The urban households are arranged in nine income groups in a descending order with the top group as households with income above Rs. 15000 per annum, and the bottom group of households with annual income of below Rs. 1000 (Table 3.13). In the top groups of households with income above Rs. 12000 per annum the percentage of enrolled to population of the children in the age-group 6-14 years is 100, it declines to 94 in the next lower income group, and declining continuously with the subsequent lower income groups it comes to 77 in the lowest income group. The trends are similar both in boys' and girls' enrolment. Similar trends are noticed when households are distributed in seven different groups by per capita income ranges, from Rs. 1000 and above per annum to less than Rs. 300 per annum (Table 3.14). The declining trend with per capita income is, of course, sharper and clearer than with total household income levels. The enrolment ratio in the highest per capita income group is 95 per cent and declining continously with each subsequent lower per capita income bracket, it falls to 72 per cent for the lowest per capita income group of less than Rs. 300. Here again, the decline in enrolment ratio of girls with declining per capita income, though sharper than that of boys in the urban areas, is not as sharp as is seen in the case of girls' enrolment as compared to boys' enrolment in the rural areas.

Reasons for Non-Enrolment

(a) Rural Areas

As noted earlier 2191 households of the sample of 6427 rural households had no children in the school going age(6-14 years). Of the remaining 4236 households, 2309 had all the children in their households enrolled. Thus 1927 households had some or all the children in the school-going age not enrolled: of them 640 households had only boys unenrolled, 911 had only girls unenrolled while 376 had both boys and girls of school going age not enrolled. We elicited reasons for non-enrolment from these sample households, separately for boys' and girls' non-enrolment, as well as for the children of the 6-9 years and 10-14 age groups.

Overall, the non-enrolment of children was ascribed in largest number of cases (34 per cent) to the poverty and economic difficulties followed by lack of interest in education (27%) and need of the child for helping in household work(15%). Another reason of some significance was distance to the school (9% cases). In the case of children in the 6-9 age group a significant percentage (5) also thought that the child is still too young to go to school. School variables such as teachers' failure to turn up and teach or unsuitability of school timing were reported as reasons for non-enrolment in a very small number of cases.

In the case of non-enrolment of girls 12 per cent parents thought they are not interested in the girls' education. That the child is still too young to go to school is also found to be more often mentioned for girls than boys, even for girls in the age group 10-14 years. That the child helps in household chores is mentioned as reason for the non-enrolment of about one-fifth of the girls in the age group 10-14 years, of 11 per cent in the case of girls in the age group 6-9 years; for one-fifth of the non-enrolled boys in 10-14 years and for 11 per cent of the boys in the age group 6-9 years. Poverty and economic difficulties are the most often given reasons for the non-enrolment of boys as well as girls in 6-9 as well as 10-14 age groups. Similarly lack of interest in education also features equally for all these categories, except, as noted earlier, a significant proportion of parents found the girls' education specially of no use.

(b) Urban Areas

In the urban areas 117 households reported non-enrolment of some or all of their school-age children: of which 64 has both boys and girls unenrolled, 34 households had girls only unenrolled and 19 households, boys. 'Poverty and economic difficulties' was the most often mentioned reason for non-enrolment of children in the urban areas too: 50 per cent

households gave this reason, followed by lack of interest in education (33% cases). In 23 per cent cases, child was considered still too young, mostly the children, both boys and girls, in these cases were in the 6-9 year age group. In 15 per cent cases more often of boys, and mostly of children in 10-14 year age group need of child for household work was reported as reason for non-enrolment. School variables like distant location, teacher's indifference and unsuitable timings did not feature as reasons for non-enrolment. That there is no interest in education of children in general was found equally reported in case of boys' and girls' non-enrolment. But the special lack of interest in girls' education was reinforced by another 15 per cent households who had school-age girls unenrolled. Disability of child was reported a reason in 15 per cent cases in urban areas as against two per cent only in the rural areas.

CHAPTER IV

Regularity in Attendance

The enrolment of a child in the school is the first important step in education, but the effectiveness with which the child receives education would abviously depend among other things, on how regularly he or she attends the school. The question of regularity of attendance is, therefore, equally important, though it is sequentially second after enrolment. The regularity or otherwise of attendance on the part of a child depends both on the family background and the school environment. In the later stages of education when the students are relatively grown up, their own individual characteristics and attitudes, would also influence their attendance behaviour. At the school level, however, we could reasonably postulate the attendance performance as depending on variables relating to the household and the school.

We have attempted the measurement of the degree of regularity of attendance both on the basis of responses from the households and from the school records. For the purposes of analysis of attendance in relation to the household variables, the three categories of households corresponding to the position of attendance of their children as explained below, have been identified:

Regular : attendance of 20 days of more, in the normal month of 25 school days

Irregular : attendance between 15 and 19 days

Highly : attendance for less than 15 days

In the case of analysis of data from school records, the schools have been classified into several categories according to (i) percentage of students attending schools regularly (for 75 per cent or over of school days) during one year, and (ii) percentage attendance on the day of visit. For analysis of attendance in relation to school variables the latter measure has been used. We have first presented the findings based household data and then those leased on information from the schools in this chapter.

I. Analysis of Household Variables

Attendance Situation :

Out of a population of 9350 children in the school going age in our sample of households. (7793 in rural and 1557 in urban areas) 6250 were enrolled in schools. A majority of them (61.6%) were regular in attending their schools. Those who were irregular or highly irregular in their schools constituted of 23.78 per cent and 14.62 per cent respectively. A slightly larger proportion of girls (63.11%) were regular in their schools as compared to boys (60.82%). Among the boys 15.16 per cent were highly irregular as against 13.59 per cent of girls.

(a) Rural Areas

The families, in our sample, having children in the school going age group and sending all or some of them to school were enquired about the extent of regularity that their children maintained in the school. A little over half of them, i.e. 53.3 per cent

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informed that their children were regular as they were attending the school for twenty days or more in a month. The children of about one-fourth (26.75%) of the households were irregular in their schools, as they were attending their classes for a period in between 15-19 days a month. About one-fifths of the sample families reported their children to be highly irregular, attending their schools for less than fifteen days a month.

No significant difference with in regularity in attendance was found between boys and girls. A slightly higher percentage of girls (58.1%) were reported as regular than boys (54.41%). Almost an equal proportion of boys (25.43%) and girls (25.02%) were found irregular and highly irregular, i.e. 17.27 per cent and 16.88 per cent respectively.

(b) Urban Areas

As stated in the earlier chapter, out of a sample of 798 households interviewed 678 had enrolled their children of the school going age of 6-14 years (50 families had no children in the school going age). About four-fifths (80.53%) of the families maintained that their children were regular in attending their schools while 15.63 per cent informed that their children were irregular. The number of families whose children were highly irregular in their attendance was, therefore, very small, i.e. 3.84 per cent.

We find that a slightly higher percentage of boys (81.63%) were regular as compared to girls (78.98%). Among the boys

attending the school 14.62 per cent were irregular and 3.75 per cent highly irregular as against 17.88 and 3.14 per cent of girls respectively.

The above data showing a significantly higher percentage of regular students among the enrolled children of the urban areas as against the children of the rural areas obviously reflects the awareness and interest of the urban households in the education of their children, on the one hand, and, better condition of schools in terms of facilities and instructions in the urban areas.

Caste and Attendance Performance of the Pupils

Does the attendance performance of the pupils differ, in some pattern among those belonging to the different caste groups? The policy of positive discrimination in favour of certain caste groups as adopted by the government, implicitly assumes such a difference resulting from the differences in socio-economic endowment of the caste groups. It is, therefore, worthwhile to look at the association between caste groups of the families of pupils and their attendance performance, both with a view to identifying the differential pattern and to assessing any infact that the policy of positive discrimination is making on the regularity of attendance of the disadvantaged groups.

A screening of distribution pattern of pupils belonging to different caste groups according to the various degrees of attendance, regular, irregular and highly irregular (Table 204:1)

Attendance Performance in Relation to Caste of Mousehold Pable 4.1 (% of emrolled children) 6711

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reveals the following pattern:

- i) The children of upper caste Hindus and those belonging to the scheduled castes and tribes show a significantly better attendance performance than those belonging to the backward castes and Muslim community. A small number belonging to other communities, Sikhs and Christians, of course, have the best attendance performance, 100 per cent.
- ii) The upper caste Hindu pupils scare significantly better than the scheduled caste/tribe pupils in the overall sample and in the rural areas. In the urban areas the latter are found to have a slight edge over the former. In the overall sample the third place is held by Muslims pupil, but they are way behind the Upper Caste Hindus and SC/ST pupils: the former have an attendance record of 42 per cent as against 77 and 61 per cent of the latter two groups. The backward castes come at the bottom in the total sample with only 29.03 of their pupils as regular. In the separate rural and urban samples, Muslims have the lowest percentage of regular pupils, but due to their higher proportion in the urban sample, where 62 per cent of their pupils are regular, they scare over the backward castes in the aggregate sample.
- iii) Thus the ranking of the four major groups considered by us, by attendance performance of their children was in the following order. Upper Caste Hindus, SC/ST groups, backwards castes and Muslims, each standing at a significant difference from the other. The ranking of the groups of the according to the percentages of highly irregular students was, however, not just the reverse of that according to the percentage of regular students. The backward castes groups had the highest percentage of irregular students in the total, rural and urban areas in the combined sample of boys and girls. Muslims came next, followed by scheduled castes/tribes and the smallest percentage of highly irregular pupils was, of course, from the Upper Caste Hindu households. In the case of middle level of attendance i.e. irregular students, Muslims had the highest percentage (45%) in the total sample, as well as in the rural (51%) and urban (32%) samples.
 - iv) Castewise pattern of attendance of boys and girls separately followed more or less similar pattern as in the combined sample of boys and girls. One significant difference from this pattern was found in urban areas, where scheduled caste/tribe girls showed the best attendance performance, with 93 per cent of them as regular,

leaving the upper caste girls for behind at 81 per cent. Also the backward castes and Muslim girls also showed a very high percentage of regular ones amongst them at 77 and 66 per cent respectively, as against only 37.02 and 30.73 in the rural areas.

v) The inter-caste differences in attendance performance are much lower in the urban areas than in the rural areas than in the rural areas.

On the whole, it looks that the caste and community status has some association with the degree of regularity of pupils attendance in the schools. It also is evident that the positive discrimination in favour of scheduled castes has borne results in so far as inspite of their low caste status, a relatively high percentage of their pupil are regular in schools. Still they have not yet reached the position attained by the high caste Hindus in this respect.

Family Characteristics and Attendance

Let us now examine the pupil's attendance performance in relation to certain other demographic, characteristics of their households. The characteristics chosen here as postulated to have same relationship with regularity of children in the schools are: the family size dependency ratio; sex ratio, age structure of family members. The analysis has been attempted for the rural and urban areas separately, as there variables are expected to influence attendance of children in school differently.

Rural Areas

The family size indicates no continuous relationship with attendance. However, families with three to six members show

that the smaller families had a higher percentage of regular children. Their percentage ranges between 48.86 and 58.50. The percentage of the households with 7 members having children regular in their schools declined to 50.66, which further declined to 49.22 in the case of families having 8 members. The largest size families with 9 or more members had 56.31 per cent of regular children. This situation may be indicative of the concern of smaller families for the education of their children and the low dependency ratio in the case of the largest size of families due to which children are free from liabilities.

Table 4.2
Family Size and Attendance

Family Size		With enrolled chi	lldren attending	Total
(No.)			ELghly Liregu	
2	50.00	25.00	25.00	0.78
	5 8,50	19.05	22.45	4.78
4	57.30	22.92	19.77	14.47
5	55,65	24.52	19.83	22.14
Õ	48.66	27.77	23.37	21.42
7	50.66	31.86	17.48	14.69
8	49.22	30.08	20.70	8.32
9 & abov	76 56.3 1	27.67	16.02	13.39

The highest percentage of regular girls students (83.33) was found from amongst two-member families followed by 71.11 per cent of the three member families and the lowest (51.96%) among six-member families. The highest percentage for boys (61.95), on the

other hand, was found among families with 9 or more members and the lowest (38.89) among 2 member families. Thus, a differential behaviour of households of similar size was found in respect of education of boys and girls.

Unlike the association of size of family with attendance the relationship between dependency ratio and attendance indicates almost a consistant trend. Among the seven ranges of dependency ratio between over 4.00 to between 1.00 and 1.50, the percentage of families with regular children varies from 40.36 to 62.84 after which it slightly declines to 61.64 at the dependency ratio of less than 0.05. The declines in percentage of families with regular students at dependency ratio range of less than 0.50, is only marginal and, therefore, by and large we find an inverse association of dependency ratio and regular attendance, i.e. higher the dependency ratio lower the percentage of families with regular students.

Table 4.3

Dependency Ratio and Attendance

Deper Ratio	idency		ith enrolled o percentage) Irregular	hildren attending Highly Irregular	
3.00	4.00 - 4.00 - 3.50 - 3.00	40.36 47.77 53.85 54.20	38.57 31.56 25.00 27.23	21.07 20.67 21.15 20.61	20.05 11.63 1.69 12.77
1.50 1.00	2.50 - 2.00 - 1.50 - 1.00 - 0.50	54.73 62.84 61.64	26.07 20.87 16.22	19.20 16.28 22.14	22.68 14.17 17.02

With marginal differences almost a similar trend is found in the case of regular boys belonging to the families with different dependency ratio. For the three ranges of dependency ratio from over 4.00 to 3.00 - 3.50 the variation in the percentage of regular boys is in between 40.78 and 65.33 after which the percentage of regular boys decline to 56.97 at dependency ratio range of 2.50 - 3.00. In the next three ranges of dependency ratio of between boys attending their schools regularly increases from 58.88 to 67.31, and to 67.33. Excepting variation at one point, almost a similar pattern of association has been observed in the case of girls students : for two dependency ratio ranges from over 4.00 to 3.50 - 4.00 the inter-range variation is between 44.22 and 57.22 after which the percentage of regular girl students declines to 44.74 at their families' dependency ratio range of 3.00 - 3.50. In the next four ranges of dependency ratio the percentage of regular girls students ranges from 59.33 to 70.39. It is somewhat out of line to find a lower percentage of regular girls student (64.74) among the households with lowest dependency ratio of less than 0.50. The situation may be indicative of the girls engaged in productive activity which would lower dependency ratio as well as the regularly in attending the schools.

We also examined the association of <u>sex ratio</u> in the households and regularity in attendance of their children. We find that except in the case of families with highest sex ratio of over 1.50, the percentage of regular students of families belonging to four ranges of sex ratio was positively related. For example, children to

56.46 per cent of the households with a range of sex ratio in between 1.25 and 1.50 were regular in their schools. The percentage of the families with regular children in the following three ranges of sex ratio, i.e. 1.00 - 1.25, 0.75 - 1.00 and 0.50 - 0.75 were 54.72, 52.54 and 51.42 respectively. However, in the highest sex ratio, i.e. over 1.50, the percentage of families with regular children was lower, i.e. 53.67. Though the variation in the percentage of families with regular children is low in different ranges of sex ratio, i.e. between 51.42 and 56.46, we may infer safely that the sex ratio of the households has a positive association with regularity in attendance of their children. This situation might be because the existence of a larger number of female members in the families lessen the burden of household responsibilities of children and, therefore, they devote more attention to their studies. This hypothes is of particular significance in relation to the finding that the sex ratio shows particularly consistent relationship with the regularity of attendance by girl students.

Table 4.4
Sex Ratio and Attendance

Sex Ratio		th enrolled cl percentage)	nildren attending	Total
	Regular	Irreqular	Highly Irregular	
∠ Pel w 1.5	53.67	26.76	19.57	42.50
1.25 - 1.50	56.46	23.60	19.94	11.57
1.00 - 1.25	54.72	22.64	22.64	1.72
0.75 - 1.00	52,54	26.06	21.40	23.68
0.50 - 0.75	51.42	29.59	18.99	20.53
Above 0.50				

Next we tried to find out the relationship between the <u>number</u> of children below 6 years of age in the household and regularity in attendance of school going children. The assumption was that the presence of young children in the family might force the relatively older ones to abstain from classes to care for them.

We, however, did not find a significant relationship between the two variables. To some extent the two variables are negatively related. For example, 51.35 per cent of the families with 3 children of below 6 years of age had regular school going children while the percentage of families with regular school going children and having 2, 1 and no very young child was 45.18, 56.71 and 54.72 respectively. A similar pattern is found in the association of the number of very young children in the family and attendance of school going boys and girls.

The relationship between attendance of school going children and the presence of old persons, i.e. above 60 years of age, in their families is found to be generally positive. The presence of old persons in the household has made impact on the attendance of boys and girls both. The percentage of the families with regular children varies from 52.23 to 55.59 and 59.17 among those without an old member and with one and two old members respectively. A similar pattern has been observed on the impact of the presence of old members in the family requires

Table 4.5

Presence of Old Members in the Family and Attendance

Number of Persons	Families wi	th enrolled ch	ildren attending	Total
abowe 60 years age	Regular	Irregular	Highly Irregular	150kman pirate takan kenada kenad
0	52,23	27.09	20.68	74.46
1	55.59	25.45	18.96	20.05
2	59.17	26.63	14.29	5.49

Similar logic could be applied to the <u>number of housewives</u> in the households. But we find negative relationship with the two variables as the highest percentage of the families with regular children (78.54) were those who had no housewives and the lowest percentage (22.22) of the household were those with five housewives. The same pattern of relationship of the two variables is found in the case of school going boys and girls.

Perhaps, a possible explanation to this inverse relationship of the two variables may be that the presence of a number of house-wives in the household is not an important factor in encouraging the their children for regular attendance in schools. The attendance variable is more associated with dependency ratio. If more housewives are present in a family it may mean that these members of the household are not earners and, we can assume, in the rural context it means a weak economic status of the family. In the relationship between dependency ratio and attendance we have, therefore, found that they are inversely related.

(b) Urban Areas

The relationship between <u>size of family</u> and attendance of their children in schools indicate that the two variables have no continuous relationship. However, a positive association has been found in families having between 2 to 6 members, after which the percentage of families with regular children decline. The percentage of two members household with regular children is 60.00 which increases to 79.17.83.61, 84.15 and 84.82 with increase in the size of families to 3, 4, 5 and 6 respectively. Among the comparatively large size families i.e. with 7, 8 and 9 and more members, the trend is inconsistent. For example, 80.23 per cent of the 7 members household have regular children while 8 and 9 and more member families constituted of 61.82 and 81.01 per cent.

Table 4.6
Family Size and Attendance

Family Size (Number)		ith enrolled check percentage):	ildren attendi	ng Total
	Regular	Irregular	Highly Irreg	ular
2	60.00	40.00	0.00	1.50
3	79.17	18.75	2.08	7.10
4	83.61	15.57	0.82	18.04
5	84.15	10.98	4.88	24.26
6	84.82	11.61	3.57	16.57
7	80.23	16.28	3.49	12.72
8	61.82	29.09	9.09	8.14
9 & above	81.01	16.46	2.53	11.68

In comparison with the rural areas a slight variation is found in the association of <u>dependency ratio</u> and household with regular children in the urban areas. For example, children of 75.27 per cent of the families in dependency ratio range of over 4.0 were regular in their schools. In the next lower dependency ratio range of 3.50 - 4.00 the percentage of such families is 33.33. After this, from the dependency ratio range of 3.00 - 3.50 to less than 0.50 the relationship, i.e. in the remaining five range groups, is consistantly inverse with the percentage of the households having regular children, ranging from 75.0 to 89.55 per cent.

Table 4.7

Dependency Ratio and Attendance

Dependency Ratic		Families with enrolled children attending School (in percentage)		
TACL Commencer of the c	Regular	Irregular	Highly Irregular	
Below 4.00	75.27	19.23	5.49	26.84
3.50 - 4.00	83.33	12.28	4.39	16.81
3.00 - 3.50	75.00	16.67	8.33	1.77
2.50 - 3.00	79.28	17.12	3.60	16.37
2.00 - 2.50				***
1.50 - 2.00	80.95	17.46	1.59	18.58
1.00 - 1.50	83.33	12.12	4.54	9.74
0.50 - 1.00				
Above 0.50	89.55	8.96	1.49	9.88

This inverse association of the two variables is very clear and consistent in the case of boys. The variations range between 75.69 per cent and 90.0 per cent from dependency ratio of over 4.00 to less than 0.50. But, in the case of girls the relationship between dependency ratio and attendance is inconsistent and, therefore, unclear.

Although no consistent relationship is found between <u>sex ratio</u> in household and attendance of their children yet we find that in the first three highest ranges of sex ratio, i.e. from over 1.50 to 1.25 - 1.50 and 1.00 - 1.25 the relationship between the two variables is inverse as the percentage of families with regular children is 79.74, 80.0 and 80.0 respectively. In the sex ratio range 0.75 - 1.00 and 0.50 - 0.75 the percentage of such households is 82.88 and 80.15 respectively. But, we find that the impact of

Table 4.8

Sex Ratio and Attendance

Sex Ratio	Families with enrolled children attending School (in percentage):			Total
	Regular	Irregular	Highly Irregular	
1.50 Legion 1.50	79.74	17.04	3.21	45.87
1.25 - 1.50	80.00	14.67	5.33	11.06
1.00 - 1.25	80.00	20.00		1.48
0.75 - 1.00	82.88	13.70	3.42	21.53
0.50 - 0.75	80.15	14.71	5.14	20.06
Abeve 0.50		e de la companya de l		

sex ratio in the family has significant impact on the attendance of girls students and there is consistency in the association of sex ratio and attendance of these students. For example, 75.81 per cent of girls belonging to household with sex ratio range of over 1.50 are regular. The percentage of such students among the families in the sex ratio ranges 1.25 - 1.50, 1.00 - 1.25, 0.75 - 1.00 and 0.50 - 0.75 are 78.95, 80.0, 81 .36 and 82.11 respectively.

The existence of very young children of below 6 years of age in the household indicate a negative relationship with attendance of their school going children. We find that 85,91 per cent of the families without a child of below 6 years regular children as compared to 77.97, 74.17 and 72.72 per cent of the household with one, two and three very young children respectively. The presence or otherwise of very young children in the family has a significant impact on the attendance of girl students in particular but in the case of boys the consistency breaks where there are 3 children below 6 years of age. For example 86.51 per cent of girls belonging to families without a child of below 6 years were regular. The percentage declined to 74.42, 72.34 and 71.43 where there were 1, 2 or 3 such children. In the case of boys, 88.39 per cent of those belonging to families without a very young child were regular as against 77.29 and 70.0 per cent of those with 1 and 2 young children of below 5 years in their families. But, 83.78 per cent of boys belonging to household with 3 very young children were found regular.

The presence of old members in the family and their impact on the attendance of children is inconsistent in the case of urban households. For example: 81.25 per cent of families without an old member had regular children as against 75.0 and 79.31 per cent of those with one and two old members respectively.

Number of persons	school (in	ith enrolled o	children attending	Total
above 60 years age	Regular	Irregular	Highly Irregular	nasta lazidnessa timina umas divides en kaladi kirika timina timita si silika turuni.
0	81.25	15.20	3,55	87.32
1	75.00	16.07	8.93	8.26
2	76.67	23.33	***	4.42

The relationship between <u>number of housewives</u> in the family and regular attendance of their children present an almost a similar trend as in the case of the presence of old persons in the family and attendance of school going children. Here, again 87.01 per cent of the families without a housewife had children who were regular in their schools. In comparison, of the household with 1, 2, 3 and 4 housewives 78.07, 79.37, 84.21 and 50.0 per cent had regular children respectively.

Education, Occupation and Income of Households and Attendance of Children:

(a) Rural Areas

We find a consistently positive relationship between the level of education of other family members and regular attendance of children. Among the households which have some members with a graduate degree, 64.57 per cent have children who are regular in their schools. The percentage of such families decreases with the decline in the level of highest education in the family. For example: children of 64.36 per cent of the households with about

twelve years schooling of any of its members are regular while of the households with a highest level of education upto class X, VIII, V and 'only literate' respectively 58.94, 57.84, 49.02 and 38.91 per cent have their children regularly attending schools. The children of only 19.05 per cent of the families with all illiterate member are regular in their schools. Another significant point to note is that children belonging to 57.14 per cent of the households with 'all illiterate' and 41.18 per cent of the families with 'only literate' member(s) were highly irregular in their schools. The impact of the level of education of the family has been more or less similar on boys and girls both.

Table 4.10

Highest Education in the Family and Attendance

Highest Education		Families with enrolled children attending school (in percentage):		
in Family	Regular	Irredlar	Highly Irregular	
Graduate	64.57	24.57	10.86	5.69
XI - XII	64.36	24.36	11.27	8.93
IX - X	58.94	27.11	13.95	16.54
VI - VIII	57.84	25.61	16.56	14.72
I - V	49.02	28.79	22.19	46.26
Literate	38.91	19.91	41.18	7.18
Illiterate	19.05	23.81	57.14	0.68

Next we have tried to examine the relationship between occupation of the household and attendance of children. This we have examined from three aspects, namely through the occupation of the head of the household, and the occupation of the household defined as (a) the one engaging the largest number of family workers, and

(b) the one providing largest income to the household. Regular attendance of children belonging to the households where the heads are engaged in trading is found to be the highest (64.48%) followed by the families where the heads are engaged in "service" (47.97%), crafts (44.83%), cultivation (43.43%) and agricultural labour (38.62%). Thus, the highest percentage of the families which have regular school going children were those where the heads were engaged in trading and the lowest were those of agricultural labour. However, one striking feature is that 55.53 of such families where heads are retired were sending their children to schools regularly. The same pattern has been found in the case of attendance of boys and girls separately.

Table 4.11
Occupation of Head of the Family and Attendance

Occupation of the Head	Families with enrolled children attending school (in percentage):						
OI THE PORT	Regular	Irregular	Highly Irrequiar	Total			
Not Working/ Retired	55 .53	25.17	19.30	52.05			
Cultivation	43.43	30.68	25.89	8.16			
Agricultural Labour	38.62	30.34	31.03	4.71			
Artisan	44.83	28.96	26.21	4.71			
Trade	64.48	22.17	13.35	14.37			
Service	47.97	31.91	20.12	16.00			

The significance of the <u>family occupation defined as the one</u>

most

with members of the household engaged in, with regard to the

attendance of children has also been examined. We find the highest

percentage of the household with regular children belong to the category of 'mixed occupations' in which the number of earning members is equally divided among two occupations. The combinations of the mixed or equally divided occupation of the household are mainly confined to cultivation and service, and agricultural labour and service. Thus 71.59 per cent of the families belonging to this category are sending their children to school regularly. Next are the trading families of which 44.29 per cent send their children to school regularly. Among the household in other categories of occupations, 42.75 per cent of "Service", 39.53 per cent of "artisan," 35.42 per cent of agricultural labour and 33.62 per cent of cultivators informed that their children were attending their classes regularly. One striking feature is that a larger percentage of the

Table 4.12
Family Occupation and Attendance

Occupation of largest number	Families with enrolled children attending school (in percentage):					
of family members	Regular	Irregular	Highly Irregula	angistangangangan Pur Pur		
Equally divided	71.59	14.78	13.63	39.82		
Cultivation	33.62	33.19	33.19	7.74		
Agricultural Labour	35.42	34.37	30.21	3.12		
Artisan	39.53	39.53	20.93	2,80		
Trade	42.29	37.14	18.57	6.83		
Service	42.75	34.07	23.18	39.69		

families connected with agriculture, either as cultivators or as agricultural labour have highly irregular dildren as 23.19 per cent of those whose occupation is cultivation and 30.21 per cent of agricultural labour have highly irregular children.

This type of association of the two variables is sharper in the case of girls. The overall impact of family occupation, defined as the one with largest number of members engaged in, has been similar on the attendance of school going boys and girls. However, a greater percentage of girls belonging to the households whose occupations are service (47.19) and cultivation (41.18) are regular in comprison with boys (42.5 and 36.12) and a larger percentage of boys belonging to the families of agricultural labour (34.21) are regular as against girls (29.73).

If family occupation is defined as the one from which the largest part of household income is derived, the trading families seem more interested in the education of their children as 65.24 per cent of them have been sending their children to schools regularly. The children belonging to 56.13 per cent of the families which draw an equal amount of income from two different occupations are regular in their attendance as against 48.96 per cent of the families earning largest income from service. Among the families with cultivation, craft and agricultural labour, 42.72 per cent, 42.13 per cent and 39.13 per cent have been sending their children to schools regularly. However, 31.68 per cent of the families of agricultural labour and 26.73 per cent of cultivators have highly irregular children. A larger percentage of girls belonging to service (57.74%) and artisan (48.84%) families are regular as compared to boys (51.98% and 38.86% respectively).

106

<u>Table 4.13</u>

<u>Family Occupation and Attendance</u>

Occupation through which	Families was school (in	ith enrolled of percentage):	children attending	Total
highest income derived	Regular	Irregular	Highly Irregular	
Equally Divided	56.13	26.12	17.75	28.38
Cultivation	42.72	30.55	26.73	13.62
Agricultural Labour	39.13	29.19	31.68	5.23
Artisan	42.13	33.15	24.72	5.79
Trade	55.24	21.92	12.84	25.07
Service	48.96	28.19	22.85	21.91

Distribution of sample households sending their children to school regularly by per capita income ranges (ranging between Rs.1000 and above and less than Rs.300 per annum) reveals a consistantly negative relationship between the two variables. The percentage of the families whose children are regular in their school ranges between 45.18, in the case of the group of households with a per capita income of Rs.1000 or more, and 62.76 in the case of those with a PCI of less than Rs.300 per annum. The impact of the per capita income of the attendance of girls is more sharp and consistent than on boys.

Table 4.14

	마이마 하시 하는 이렇게 돼요? 그 나는	·			
11				4.08	25.22
			1 00		그 그렇게 하는 것이 있는 그 나는 아이들은 것 같아. 하지만 생기는 모든 모든
	Literate	80.61	4.29	5.10	14.45
			0.00	03 33	
	Illiterate	16.67	0.00	83.33	0.88
			공기 기본 사람들은 얼마 전투 그리다는 계시되는 중이다.		그들은 맛이 좀 위하는 것이 만든 맛을 얼굴하게 되었다면 하다 했다.

(a) <u>Urban Areas</u>

Unlike the rural areas, educational level of the households, as indicated by the highest level of education attained by any member of the family, in urban areas does not show any consistent relationship with attendance of their children. Though there is a very high margin between the percentages of the groups of families having a graduate member and all-illiterates, and sending their children to schools regularly. For example : 90.65 per cent of the households with some member(s) having graduate degree send their children to schools regularly whereas only 16.67 per cent of the families with all illiterate members were found under this category. But no consistent relationship is found between attendance of children and the highest education in the family as 77.15 per cent of the household with the highest education of upto twelve years schooling were sending their children to schools regularly as against 75.26 per cent of those with eight years, 78.95 per cent of those with five years schooling and 80.61 per cent of those who had only some literate member(s).

Table 4.15

Highest Education in the Family and Attendance

Highest Education	Families with enrolled children attending school (in percentage):					
in Family	Regular	Irregular	Highly Irregular			
Graduate	90.65	8,63	0.72	20.50		
XI - XII	77.15	19.04	3.81	15.49		
IX - X	75.26	23.71	1.03	14.31		
VI - VIII	82.26	14.52	3.22	9.15		
I - V	78.95	16.37	4.68	25.22		
Literate	80.61	14.29	5.10	14.45		
Illiterate	16.67	0.00	83.33	0.88		

The relationship between family occupation and attendance of children indicate a pattern different from the rural areas. In the sample households of rural areas a lower percentage of the families whose heads were engaged in cultivation were sending their children to schools regularly (43.43). A similar pattern was found among the families whose occupation was cultivation, either according to the larger number of their workers engaged in it, (33.62%) or according to the highest income derived from it (42.72%). In the sample of households of the urban areas, however, cultivation as the occupation of the head and the household, on the basis of a larger number of persons engaged in it or the largest income derived from it, seems to have greater significance for the attendance of their children. For example : 98.44 per cent of the households whose heads' occupation is cultivation are sending their children to schools regularly as against 79.10, 73.17, 71.70 and 70.42 per cent of those belonging to the occupations of trade, agricultural labour, service and artisans respectively. However, 92.57 per cent of the families whose heads were not working/retired were sending their children to schools regularly. As stated earlier, a similar pattern is

Table 4.16

Occupation of Head of the Family and Attendance

Service

78.9

13.16

607

revealed when family occupation is defined as the occupation engaging the largest number of family members or as the occupation from which the largest part of family income is derived, except in the case of families deriving income equally from two occupations of which a slightly higher percentage is sending their children to schools regularly. An important difference in the attendance of boys and girls is that a significantly larger percentage of girls of the wage earning families are regular as compared to boys whereas a larger percentage ofboys belonging to artisan families are regular.

Table 4.17
Family Occupation and Attendance

Occupation of largest	Families School (i	with enrolled on percentage):	children attending	Total
number of family members	Regular	Irregular	Highly Irregular	
Equally Divided	93.48	4.35	2.17	13.57
Cultivation	97.65	0.00	2.35	12.54
Agricultural Labour	74.29	25.71	0.00	5.16
Artisan	75.00	17.86	7.14	8.26
Trade	82.09	14.93	2.98	9.88
Service	74.05	21.28	4.66	50.59

Table 4.18
Family Occupation and Attendance

Occupation through which	Families with enrolled children attending School (in percentage):					
highest income derived	Regular	Irregular	Highly Irregular	Total		
Equally Divided	98.18	0.00	1.82	8.11		
Cultivation	96.97	0.00	3.03	14.60		
Agricultural Labour	64.29	33.33	2.38	6.19		
Artisan	71.34	23.17	5.49	24.19		
Trade	79.41	19.12	1.47	30.09		
Service	78.95	13.16	7.89	16.81		

The pattern of relationship between per capita income of household and regularity in attendance of their children in the urban areas has been found different from the pattern in the rural The rural areas had consistently inverse relationship while in urban areas two patterns emerge from the data. The households are arranged in 7 income groups in a decending order with the top group of households with per capita income of above Rs. 1000 per annum and the bottom group of households with PCI of below Rs. 300 per annum. In the highest per capita income group, 80.08 per cent of the families send their children to schools regularly. The percentage of such families decline to 73.56 and 66.23 in the next FCI groups of Rs.750-1000 and Rs.600-750 respectively. The percentage of the households with regular children, then, increases consistently in the remaining PCI groups, such as 81.58, 89.19, 90.24 and 90.30 in the per capita income groups of Rs.500-600, Rs.400-509, Rs.300-400 and below Rs. 300 per annum respectively. More or less a similar pattern of relationship has been found in the case of boys whereas the impact of income on the attendance of girls in diffused.

Table 4.19
Per Capita Income and Attendance

Per Capita Income	Families with enrolled children attending school (in percentage):					
groups (Rs)	Regular Irregular Highly Irregular					
1000 +	80.08	16.92	3.00	39.35		
750 - 1000	73.56	22.99	3.45	12.87		
600 - 750	66.23	29.87	3.90	11.39		
500 - 600	81.58	13.16	5.26	5.62		
400 - 500	89.19	8.11	2.70	10.95		
300 - 400	90.24	7.32	2.44	12.13		
۷ 300	90.38	1.92	7.69	7.69		

Reasons for Non-Attendance

(a) Rural Areas

We probed our household respondents about the activities of school going children during their absence from school and found that children belonging to 23.08 per cent of families usually help the household in their certain economic activities during their absence from school. Among the such activities of the children are : help in agricultural work (55.93%), help in other economic activities (7.23%), grazing of cattles of others (5.26%) and other work (31.58%) which include looking after very young children of the family when their mothers go to work outside or other household work. Of those who do not have any work during their absence from the school, children belonging to 87.53 per cent of household remain absent due to ill health, 5.05 per cent because they do not have any interest in education, 2.51 per cent as they feel the quality of teaching in the school is very poor and no attention is paid to students in their schools and 4.91 per cent because of various other reasons.

We also tried to find out whether there is any association between the reasons for absenteeism and certain characteristics of the households.

It is generally seen that the children belonging to the families with the high dependancy ratio, i.e. 22, usually participate in various household activities when they remain absent from school. Children of the families with nof only one housewife and or of the families with low per capita income most often engage themselves into different economic activities.

Thus, the data indicate that usually a large number of children belonging to economically weaker families undertake some gainful activity during their absence from school.

(b) <u>Urban Areas</u>

A large majority of children (93.6%) in urban areas usually do not undertake any work during their absence from school. Among those who help their households in their economic activities

15.38 per cent help in agriculture, 9.62 per cent in other economic activities, 9.62 per cent by grazing others' cattle and 65.38 per cent in different other activities. The families whose children do not work during absence from school 91.27 per cent informed that their absence is usually due to illness while 4.67 of the household heads feel their children have no interest in education,

1.72 per cent thought that the quality of teaching in school is poor and, therefore, the child does not feel attracted and 2.34 per cent gave various other reasons.

As regards the relationship between absence of the child from school and certain family characteristics we find that absence from school, the children of the families with higher dependancy ratio were participating in economic activities, more than those of the families with low dependancy ratio during their absence from school. The data also indicate that children belonging to households with smaller number of housewives help their families in their economic activities. But, the relationship between per capita income of families and undertaking of economic activities by children during their absence from school is not categorical.

The existence of very young children of below 6 years of age has negative relationship as more children of the families without children below 6 years help their household during their absence from school than of those with a number of very young children.

II. School Variables and Attendance

Measures of Attendance

Let us now turn to the overall and differential situation of the schools in the sample in respect of the regularity or otherwise of the pupils and its relationship with the different characteristics of the schools. We could obtain two measures of attendance from the sample schools. One, on the basis of the records in attendance registers we computed the number of students attending school at least 75 per cent of the days it was open during the last session, and designated them as regularly attending and the rest as irregularly attending. In the Table 4.26 we have presented distribution of schools by the percentage of students regularly attending the school. Two, the attendance on the day of our visit to the school was recorded and schools are distributed (Table 4.27) according to the percentage of students attending on that day. Care was taken to see that the day was a 'normal' day and not marked by any exceptional characteristic such as rain, proximity to long holidays on account of festivals etc.

On the basis of the first measure, namely, the percentage of students attending school for 75 per cent of the days school was open during the last year, as recorded in the school attendance register, the attendance situation does not seem alarming. All but 12.5 per cent junior basic schools in rural areas recorded that over 70 per cent of their students have been 'regularly' attending school. In Hamirpur district all schools reported

Table 4.20
Attendance : Per cent of Students Attending School
Regularly

Percentage of regular Students		Number of Junior Bas: Areas h Sitapur	ic Schoo	ols in R		Senior Basic Schools in Rural	(All J JBS	an pols <u>Distt.)</u> SBS
						Areas (Al District		
L 70	0	3	0	1	4	ò	1	0
70 - 80	0	4	0	4	8	2	2	1
80 - 90	4	1	0	2	7	2	0	2
90 - 100	4	0	8	1	13	4	5	1
Total	8	8	8	8	32	8	8	4

over 90 per cent students as regular: in Pithoragarh the situation was only slightly less encouraging: 50 per cent schools reporting 80 to 90 per cent and the other 50 per cent between 90 to 100 per cent students as 'regular'. In Sitabur, 37 per cent schools reported less than 70 per cent students as regular, only 12 per cent schools as over 80 per cent students as regular. In Gonda, the situation was only slightly better. In rural senior basic schools, practically all students were recorded attending regularly. In the urban areas, both junior and senior basic schools showed over 70 per cent students as regular. Overall, the ranking of schools by different categories on the basis of recorded attendance would be as follows: (1)JBS(R) in Hamirpur, (2) JBS(R) in Pithoragarh,

(3) SBS(R), (4) JBS(U), (5) SBS(U), (6) JBS(R) in Gonda, and (7) JBS(R) in Sitapur.

Similar pattern is observed on the basis of the second measure of attendance, namely, percentage of students present on the day of visit. Overall attendance turns out to be 62.83 per cent in the rural junior basic schools, 68.92 per cent in the rural senior basic schools, 61.73 per cent in the urban junior basic schools and 55.52 per cent in the urban senior basic schools. In the rural junior basic schools in Sitapur 87 per cent schools had less than 50 per cent attendance, the average for all sample schools in the district being only 33.27. The averages for rural junior basic schools in Gonda, Pithoragarh and Hamirpur were 73.92, 80.45 and 80.56 respectively. Since this measure is more direct and easier to relate with other variables, and also the differences are sharper, within the similar pattern as revealed by the earlier measure, we decided to use it for the purposes of the following analysis of the relationship between school variables and attendance.

Table 4.21

Attendance: Per cent of Students Present in School on the Day of Visit

Percentage Attendance		and the second s	of Schools Basic School		ıral	Senior Basic Schools	Urbai Schoo (All	The second second
	Pithoragarh	Sitapur	Hamirpur	Gonda	Total	in Rural Areas(All Districts)	JBS	SBS
4 50	0	7		1	9		2	1
50 - 65	1	1		2	5	2	1	1
65 - 80		0	# 1	2	6	1	2	1
80 - 90		0	3	3	9	2	1	0
90 - 100		0	2	0	3	2	2	1
Total	<u> </u>	8	<u> </u>	8	32	. 8	8	4
erage attend	lance 80.45	33.27	80.56	73.92	62.83	68.92	61.73	55.52

Pupil-Teacher Ratio and Attendance

As observed in the earlier chapter, the pupil-teacher ratio was generally found to be not very high, and the inter-area variations in the ratio were also rather small. In the junior basic schools in the rural areas, the ratio was found to be 32, varying between the averages of 27 in Sitapur to 35 in Gonda districts. The urban junior basic schools had an overall ratio of 37, and the senior basic schools in rural areas a ratio of 32 and in urban areas of 21. For this part of our analysis all the schools, junior basic schools and senior basic schools, rural and urban, have been taken together.

On the whole, one finds a tendency of a nagative relationship between the pupil-teacher ratio and attendance, but it is rather feeble. With the increase in the ratio from 30 to 35, and 40 the average attendance falls from 69.34 to 69.13 to 57.40, but with the pupil-teacher ratio increasing to beyond 40 the attendance also increases to the average of 66 per cent.

Table 4.22

Pupil Teacher Ratio and Attendance (All Schools)

Pupil Teach Ratio		Atten ∠50	dance (2 50-65	of Stud 65-80	lents Prese 80-90 90	nt) -100	Total Schools	Average
upto	30	5	5	3	4	5	22	69.34
30	35	3	1	2	5	1	12	69,13
35 -	40	2	1	1	1	enen	5	57.40
40 +		3	2	3	3	2	13	66.08
Total	Schoo		9	••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	13	8	52	

School Space and Attendance

On the availability of space in the school we have information on three aspects: covered space per student, number of rooms and total area in the school premises, part of which could also be used for playgrounds. All these could be considered to have some influence, however indirect, on the regularity of otherwise of attendance of pupils.

Tabulation of data on these variables along with the relative attendance position of the schools reveals a mixed picture. The per student covered space available shows a positive relationship with autendance, except at the higher end of space availability. The schools with no building show lowest (42.88%) attendance, it improves consistently with increase in space availability to 10.

15 and upto 20 square feet, rising to 82.11 per cent. With space increasing to over 20 square feet per student, however, the attendance drops to 73.79 per cent. A closer look at the structure of data, however, reveals that the relationship could have been positive throughout except for a few exceptional cases of schools having large buildings but low percentage of attendance.

<u>Table 4.23</u>

Covered Space Per Student and Attendance (All Schools)

Covered Area : Stur The relationship between number of rooms in the school building and attendance is, however, less consistent. Attendance in schools with one room is not much different from that in three roomed schools, but it is higher and similar in the two roomed and four roomed schools. Surprisingly schools with five or more rooms show lowest average attendance among schools having buildings.

Number of Rooms and Attendance (All Schools)

Number of Rooms	250	50 - 65	(% of Students		90-100	- Total Schools	Average
No Buildings	1	***	1	***	Alle A	2	42.88
One	3	1	400	1	2	7	67.28
Two	3	4	3	7	3	29	71.96
Three	4	1	4	1	3	13	66.04
Four	Alle	2	1	2	486	5	72.47
Five or More	2	1	2008	2	5000	5	56.32
Total Schools	1.3	9	9	13	8	52	

The total school area, covered and open, together, however, shows a consistently positive relationship with attendance. In the area ranges of upto 20, 20 to 50, 50 to 100 and 100 and more square feet per student, the attendance averages turn out to be 50, 59, 77, and 84 per cent respectively. The relationship holds equally consistently between playground area and attendance. Schools with no playground have an attendance of 61 per cent, those with playground of upto 5000 square feet area 63 per cent, with 5000 to 10000 square feet 81 per cent and those with higher than 10000 square feet of playground 84 per cent.

Table 4.25

Total School Area Per Student and Attendance (All Schools)

Total Area Per Studen- tent (Sg.Ft.)	Attend ∠ 50	<u> </u>	of Stude 65-80	ents Pre	sent):	Total Schools	Average
Nil upto 20 20 - 50 50 - 100 100 +	1 9 3	1 3 3 2	1 2 1 2 3	* 2 3 8	2 2 2 4	2 14 9 10 17	42.88 50.16 59.00 77.29 82.93
Total Schools	13	9	9	13	e talente mes en secte entre en secte en section en secte en section en section en secte en section en sectio	52	engelen eine er en

Facilities and Educational Aids and Attendance

In this group we have information on facility for seating, and blackboard and library books. So far as seating facilities are concerned, as observed earlier, most schools use <u>tatpattis</u> for the students. Strangely enough the number of <u>tatpattis</u> in a school are found not only not having any positive but having a somewhat negative relationship with attendance. Schools with no <u>tatpattis</u> had 77 per cent attendance, those with upto 5 of them 68 per cent, those with 6 to 10 <u>tatpattis</u> 69, those with 11 to 20, 63 and those with larger number 66 per cent.

Table 4.26

Number of Tatpattis and Attendance (All Schools)

Tatpattis (No.)	Attend 4 50	lance (% 50 - 65	of Stude 65-80	nts Pre 80-90	sent): 90-100	Total Schools	Average
Nil 3 - 5		2	2	2 2	2 2	7 9	76.76 67.72
6 - 10 11 - 20	3 6	3	2 3	4 4	1 3	12 19	68.97 62.99
21 or more		Ž	2	i		5	66.09
Total Schools	13	9	9	13	8	52	

Availability of blackboards as the basic teaching aid, however, has a consistent relationship with attendance. Starting with only 59 per cent in schools with no blackboards, the attendance rises to 61, 69, 79, 80 and 87 per cent in schools with one, two, three, four and five or more blackboards respectively. Similarly, consis-

Table 4.27
Number of Blackboards and Attendance (All Schools)

Blackboards (No.)	Attend 450	ance (% 50-65	of Stude '65 - 80	ents Pre 80-90	sent): 90-100	Total Schools	Average
NL1 Case	6	1	3	1	***	11	58.96
Two	2	£	2	2	1	6 7	61.32 69.00
Three Four	1	3	2	3	4	13	78.82
Five or more	~		distri	4	3	5 10	79.97 86.71
Total Schools	1.3	9	9	13	8	52	et de la companya de

tent is the relationship between the number of library books and attendance. The schools with no books have an average attendance of 59 per cent, those having a library with upto 100 books 69 per cent, those with 100-200 books 75 per cent and those with more books 82 per cent.

Table 4.28

Library Books and Attendance (All Schools)

Number of Books		nce (% (50-65	of Studer 65-80			Total Schools	Average
None	9	4	2	3	3	21	58.51
4100	3	3	3	5	1	15	68.97
100 - 200	1	1	3	3	2	10	74.87
200 +		1	1	2	2	6	81.62

Student Aid and Assistance and Attendance

The two items on which we have information, per student expenditure on Applied Nutrition Programme and percentage of students receiving book aid in the form of free supply of books, are found to have an impact on attendance. As noted earlier most schools in the sample reported no expenditure on ANP; such school showed an average attendance of 56 per cent. Those with ANP expenditure upto Rs.3 per student per month, had 60 per cent attendance. With increase in the figure of expenditure to between Rs.3 and 4 and Rs.4 or more, the percentage of attendance rose to 68 and 78 per cent respectively.

Expenditure on Applied Nutrition Programme and Attendance (All Schools)

Expenditure per Student per Month (%)	Atter ∠ 50	ndance (% 50 - 6 5	of Stud 65-80		resent) : 90-100	Total Schools	Average
MAI 43.00 3.00 - 4.00 4.00 or more	11	7 1 1	6 1 2	11 1 1	4 1 1 2	39 3 44 6	56.21 60.33 68.11 77.68
Total Schools	13	9	9	13	8	52	

Similarly, distribution of books to the students, free of cost, is also found to have a positive relationship with attendance. Again, majority of schools did not distribute books free, and the average attendance in such schools turned out to 65 per cent. But the schools distributing free books to upto 20 per cent students found their attendance rising to 68 per cent. With coverage of

students receiving free books increasing to between 20 and 50 per cent and over 50 per cent, the attendance also rose to 72 and 79 per cent respectively.

Distribution of Free Books and Attendance
(All Schools)

Percentage of Students receiving Free Books	Attend ∠ 50	lance (% 50-65	of Stude 65-80	ents Pre 80-90	sent): 90-100	Total Schools	Average
Nome upto 20% 20% - 50% 50% or more	2 2	5 1 - 3	6 2 1	6	4 1 1 2	30 10 7 5	65.23 67.82 71.63 78.80
Total Schools	13	3	9	13	3	52	

Lastly, the attendance performance of the schools was found closely related with the native place of the headmaster. If he came from the same village, the attendance of students was found to average at 76.43 per cent, if he came from outside the village but from within the block, the attendance dropped down to 71 per cent. But if he came from outside the block, the attendance sharply declined to 52 per cent.

Table 4.3

Native Place of the Head Master and Attendance (All Schools)

	Attend	lance (%	of Stud	lents Pr	esent):	Total	News
Place	450	50-65	6580	80-90	90-100	Schools	Average
Same Village	1	2	3	3	3	12	76.43
Same Block	3	3	2	10	4	22	71.27
Dutside	9	4	4	***	1	18	51.75
Potal Schools	13	9	9	13	8	52	

Note: Same village or same Block in urban areas means same locality and same town respectively.

CHAPTER V

Drop-Outs

The phenomenon of drop-out from the schools without completing basic education is now emerging as the most serious problem in the task of universalisation of education. With the rapid expansion in the facilities in terms of provision of schools within accessible distance, the initial enrolment of children in the school going age has significantly increased and a near-universalisation of enrolment seems now within the realm of achievement. It is, however, observed, that the majority of pupils who enter schools leave before completing education upto V or VIII class. It is this problem that constitutes the subject matter of the present chapter. It attempts estimates of drop-outs on the basis of the data from the sample schools and households and then examines how far the drop-out from a school are related with certain school characteristics representing facilities and quality of instruction at school; and incidence of drop-out among different households is related with characteristics representing social, demographic and economic characteristics of the households.

I. Drop-Out Rates

A. Estimates Based on School Data

In the first instance, we attempted an estimate of dropout rate in a school taking the enrolment of students in class I in a past year as the base, and following their progress from class to class in the subsequent years. Two problems arose in adopting this method of estimating drop-out: one in many cases, the enrolment in a class in a year was larger than the enrolment in the immediately lower class in the previous year due to the fresh entry from other school in the middle of the stream and stagnation due to failure in the class. Second, sometimes the enrolment in a class suddenly dropped much below the enrolment in the immediately lower class in the previous year, not only because of stagnation and drop-out but mainly because of the opening of a new school nearby where some of the students shifted. A detailed class-wise checking of these aspects for each school proved a cumbersome and time consuming process and had to be abandoned due to the constraints of time and heaveneds.

(1) Class-wise Drop-Outs

As an alternative, we estimated drop-out in each class on the basis of the figures of enrolment and numbers appearing in the annual class examination during the year 1980-81. All those enrolled in a class either on promotion from a lower class in the school, failure of the class for the year and fresh entrants from outside, got included in the enrolment figure, and the difference between this figure and that of those reporting for the annual examination for the class was treated as the number of drop-outs in that class. The drop-out rates for each class,

estimated on the above basis, for junior and senior basic schools in the rural and urban areas of each of the four selected districts, are given in Table 5.1.

Both in the rural and urban areas, the highest drop-out rate is observed in class I, though those in class II and III are also almost equally high in the rural schools. In the rural schools, Hamirpur district reveals a somewhat exceptional pattern with rather low rate of drop-out in class I and the highest rate in class III. The drop-out rates in senior basic classes are every-where significantly lower than in the junior basic schools. In fact over 80 per cent of the total drop-out in class I - VIII is found to take place in the classes upto V.

(11) Cumulative Drop-Outs

As pointed out earlier our estimates of drop-outs are based on class-wise data for a single year. If one assumes that the pattern of drop-out so estimated holds for temporal trends as well, one can estimate the cumulative drop-out rates for a group of pupil entering the school (in class I and VI) at any point of time. Estimates based on this assumption are also given as cumulative drop-out in Table 5.1. These figures are not just the additions of the drop-out rates of each class, but have been arrived by calculating

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TABLE 5.1

Class-wise Drop-out by Types of Schools

				Rural Sc	Schools				Urban Schools) 10 18 10 10 10 10 10 10	
School Level	Class	Pitho- ragarh	S it ap ur	randr-	Gonda	Average	Pitho- ragarh	Pitho- Sitapur ragarh	Hamir- Gonda Averag pur	Conda	Avera
Junior Basic		10 ok	•	2							
	#	α Ω	20.74	000	300	בר ב)			01.004	
	111			1 1 1 1 1 1	00001	11001	66.17	C#*K7	13./4	20.00	23.3
	111	9.93	22,05	21.04	18.18	17.80	9,69	18.77	9.32	11.39	12.7
	Y	8.28	20.54	13,48	16.45	14.69	5.23	3.65	7.34	17.18	30 I
Cumulative		6.07	12.76	0 6	5.45	e, 23	9.00	2.60	7.84	9.89	7.33
drop-out	(F-S	33,99	60.43	56.01	67.66	60.60	50.13	72,34	68.92	88.14	24.27
Senior Basic	ដ	4.50	8.43	8.82	5.61	o. 0	11.19	:	.	5	o •
	AII	3.51	16.67	5.04	9.46	8.82	6.96	0.00		л! %!	.
Cumulative total	T WIII	1.54	0.00	2.46	8.80	3.28	6.78	9 8	7.73	5.03	4:90
	-	VI4VII) 9.42	24.32	14.87	22.34	18.03	24.26	1.22	10.41	8 .62	7.78
	(I-VIII) 31.06	31.06	71.06	62.55	74,88	@7.7 0	63, 23	72.67		74.71	70.62

retention in each class out of a base of 100 pupil in class I, and then subtracting the final retention (Class V or class VII) from 100. Thus these figures indicate aggregate of pupils dropping out in different classes out of 100 enrolled in class I (or class VI). It is seen, for example, that for the rural sample as a whole, 61 pupils out of 100 enrolled in class I drop-out during the, classes I-V; of 100 students entering senior basic school in class VI, 18 drop-out before completing education upto class VIII; and of the 100 pupil enrolled in class I 68 drop-out before completing class VIII and thus only 32 complete the senior basic education. The incidence of drop-out is found to be higher at each stage and in the aggregate in urban school than in the rural schools.

Among the districts, there are hardly any variations so far as the urban schools are concerned. Three districts show a cumulative drop-out rate (class I-VIII) very near the average of 70.62; Pithoragarh however, has a somewhat lower rate of 62.23. Hamirpur and Sitapur districts with the highest drop-out rates in the junior basic schools and in the aggregate for class I-VIII, however, show a relatively low drop-out in senior basic schools in the urban areas. Pithoragarh with the lowest drop-out rate in the junior basic stage and in aggregate, has surprisingly the highest drop-out rate in the senior basic stage in the urban areas.

In the rural schools the variations among the districts are much more marked. In Pithoragarh, 69 of the 100 pupils enrolling in class I are estimated to complete education upto class VIII, the corresponding figures for Sitapur, Hamirpur and Gonda are 29, 37 and 25 respectively.

(iii) Average Per Class/Per Annum Drop-out

Another way of looking at the information utilised to arrive at the estimates given in Table 5.1 could be in terms of the estimates of drop-outs for a single year in all classes together. As the information, in fact, relates to a single year, such an estimate could be arrived in terms of the percentages of pupils in any class in the school dropping out during the year without appearing in the annual examination, to the total enrolment in all classes in the school at the beginning of the year. The ratio would indicate average drop-out per year in schools of different types and locations

TABLE 5.2

Drop-out as Percentage of Enrolment in a Year

			Rural				Urb	an		
School Level	Pitho- ragarh		Hamir- pur	Sita- pur	Average	Pitho- ragarh		Hamir- pur	Sita- pur	Avera ge
Junior Basic(I-V)	7.67	16.60	15.60	17.72	15.34	17.00	25.00	37.98	19.62	23.90
Senior Basic (VI-VIII)	1.61	1.75	3.97	7.94	2.61	8,33	7.95	4.17	0.90	4.67
Average (I-VIII)	5.27	13.34	13.57	17.22	13.12	11.83	19.23	29.50	16.25	18.12

Of the pupils on roll in rural schools in a year in different classes 13 per cent and in the urban schools 18 per cent drop-cut during that year. Of course, the percentages are much higher in the junior basic classes than in the senior basic classes. And among districts Sitapur schools have the highest and Pithoragarh schools the lowest incidence of drop-outs, but in urban schools Hamirpur has the highest and Pithoragarh the lowest incidence of drop-outs.

B. Estimates Based on Household Data

An estimate of the extent of drop-out among the children in the school going age group was also attempted on the basis of data collected from the sample household. The total population in the age group 6-14 consists of three categories (i) currently enrolled in the schools, (ii) enrolled at some earlier stage but currently out of school, and (iii) never enrolled. Our estimates drop-out rates here are the percentages of (ii) to (i) plus (ii). Summary of estimates arrived on this basis is given in Table 5.3. District-wise figures are not given in the Table but they follow the similar pattern as revealed by the analysis of school data. Separate drop-out rates are, however, estimated for boys and girls. In the aggregate the proportion of drop-outs among the ever-enrolled is found to be marginally higher in the case girls than of boys; the difference is somewhat more significant in the same

TABLE 5.3

Dropped-out Children as Percentage Ever Enrolled Children

Education Level	Ru:	ral Ar	ຄດຮ	Urba	nn Are	a l		Total	
	M	P	T.	M		<u> </u>		F	<u> </u>
Junior Basic	16.13	18.29	17.03	16.25	12.94	14.88	16.15	17.53	16.77
Senior Basic	6.45	2.87	5.01	6.25	11.76	8.54	6.42	3.97	5.39
Total	13.71	15.20	14.03	14.03	12.65	13.30	13.76	14.21	14.49

direction in the rural areas, but in the urban areas, droppedout constitute a higher proportion of ever enrolled in the case of boys than girls.

The stage-wise pattern of drop-outs estimated on the basis of household data is similar to that revealed by school data: most drop-out taking place in the junior basic stage. Class-wise pattern (Table 5.4), however, is found somewhat different here. While the school data reveal highest drop-out in class I, the household data shows the highest drop-out in class II. This difference probably is attributable the different understanding of drop-out at the two sources. In the case of schools, we have considered such pupils as drop-out in a class who did not appear at the annual examination of that class, whereas the households have probably considered a child who attended for the whole year in class I, but did not go to school in class II, irrespective of whether he appeared and passed or not in class I examination, as drop-out

in class II. In view of the fact that the system of annual examination for promotion from class I to class II has been generally abolished, this explanation seems plausible. All are promoted, but in the case of school data athose not en-rolling for class II are treated as drop-out in class I, while the household data record them as drop-outs in class II.

Class-wise Percentage of the Drop-outs in Rural and Urban Areas of the Sample Districts

Class	Ru:	cal Are	9as	Urb	Urban Areas			. (Rura	al & Urb
CTGSS	И	P	T	М	7	T	М	•	2
.	7,44	8,61	7.93	20.83	5.88	14.63	9.12	8.27	8.76
II	23.81	26.64	25.00	10.43	5.88	8.54	22.64	24.10	22.96
III	21.73	17.21	19.83	16.67	2.94	10.98	21.09	15.47	18.73
IV	14.58	10.25	12.76	14.58	23.53	18.29	14.58	11.87	13.44
٧	13.10	28.69	19.65	18.75	26.47	21.95	13.80	28.42	19.94
VI	9.52	3.69	7.07	8.33	26.47	15.85	9.38	6.47	8.16
VII	6.85	3.69	5.72	8.33	5.88	7.32	7.03	3.96	5.74
VIII	2.98	1.23	2.24	2.08	2.94	2.44	2.86	1.44	2.27

It is observed that there does not prevail a close ageclass correspondence in enrolment, it is not always that a six year old child is in class I, a seven year old in class II and so on. It is, therefore, worthwhile to look at distribution of dropped-out children by the age to which they left school (Table 5.5). Here one does not find the highest incidence of

Age-wise Percentage of Drop-outs in Rural And Urban Areas of the Sample Districts

Age	Rui	cal Are	es.	Urk	oan Are	as	<u>Total</u>		<u>& Urban</u>
in years	М	1	T	М	1	1	М	J	
	3.27	4.51	3.79	4.44	0.00	2.53	3.41	3.96	3.64
	8.93	7.38	8.28	13.33	5.88	10.13	9.45	7.19	8.50
							10.50		10.62
9							10.76		
10							21.79		
11							15.22		
12							13.91		
13	10.12	7.38					10.24		
14	5.06						4.72	A ST DOMEST APPROXIME	4.55

drop-out at the lowest end of the school going age, which should normally correspond to class I or II, the classes with highest incidence of drop-out. In fact, the highest drop-out is found among the rural children during 10-12 years of age; both among boys and girls, and in urban areas at 10 years of age among boys and 11-12 years of age among girls. Class-wise drop-outs were found to be the highest in rural areas in class II and III for boys and in class II and then in class V in case of girls; and in urban areas in class I and V in case of boys and in classes V and VI in case of girls. The age-class correspondence generally holds except that the boys in rural areas seem generally older than their school class suggests on the whole. The highest drop-outs are found at the ages of

10-12 years. It looks that completion of one stage, junior basic, of scholling and also high enough age for participating in production or household activities account for this particular age-level as the modal drop-out point.

The two sets of estimates, one based on school data and the other on the household data, were attempted by us first to test the reliability of our own estimates and second to make the estimates correspond with the two sets of explanatory variables, schools variables and household variables. For testing the reliability, we can compare the two estimates: the drop-out enrolment ratio in the school data and drop-out ever enrolled children ratio in the households. The two need not necessarily be identical, but there is reason to expect them to be similar. The estimates presented in Tables 5.2 and 5.3 are the ones which invite comparison on this basis and we find that the two estimates follow similar extent and pattern.

For explanatory analysis we have have two sets of variables, those relating to school and those characterising the households. It is not possible to associate school estimates with household variables or vice-versa. We have, therefore, used school estimates to identify such characteristics of the schools which are hypothesised to influence dropout, and estimates based on household data to identify household variables influencing drop-outs. In the following parts of this chapter we have attempted this analysis first taking the school variables and then the household variables.

II. School Variables and Drop-Outs

We have examined here the association of the various characteristics of the school, as explained in the chapter on attendance, with the cumulative (class I-VIII) drop-out estimates for each school in the sample. For the purposes of this analysis all the 52 schools in the sample have been pooled together, assuming that school variables should have similar influence, if at all, among the student drop-out irrespective of location, and level of school. Moreover, the sample size being rather small (52) categorisation of schools would leave too small a number of observations in different cells of the tables to derive any meaningful association. We also do not have separate estimates of drop-outs for boys and girls for this part of the analysis.

Pupil-Teacher Ratio and Drop-outs

As observed in the earlier chapter there are only marginal variations in the pupil-teacher ratio. Although schools with different pupil-teacher ratios' are found to have both high and low drop-out rates, the average relationship between the two variables is quite clear (Table 5.6). It is found that as the pupil-teacher ratio rises from below 30 to 30-35, 35-40 and 40 and above drop-out rate increases from 46 to 61 and 70 per cent.

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TABLE 5.6
Pupil-Teacher Ratio and Drop-Out

	Drop-out	rate/ Cumulative class I-V or I-VIII						
	<u></u>	25 - 50	50 - 75	75+	Average			
Pupil-Teacher Ratio upto 30		8	5	4	45.82			
30 - 35				4	60.52			
35 - 40				3	69.88			
40 +	3		4	3	70.01			

School Space and Drop-Outs

The relationship between covered space per student and drop out rates is somewhat mixed. But strangely enough the drop-out rates seem to be negatively related with the number of rooms in the school for most part. But once the number of rooms in the school rises to 4 or more, there is a sharp fall in the drop-out rates. Thus, it looks that so long as the number of rooms are less than number of classes held in the school, they make no impact on the drop out; but once the number of rooms is at least equal to the number of classes, the school is in a position to retain a larger part of its pupils in the educational stream (Table 5.7).

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TABLE 5.7
Number of Rooms and Drop-out Rate

No. of Drop-out Rate						
Rooms	<u></u>	23	25 - 50	50 - 75	75 +	Average
1		2	•		1	51.30
2		4	6	4	8	59.72
3		1	2	6	5	71.49
4		1	2			44.46
5 + more		3				27.11

The total area, covered or open, available with the school is found to have a positive though not always consistent relationship with the drop-out rates. The schools with no building

TABLE 5.8

Total School Area Per Student and Drop-out Rate

Area (Sq. feet)	Drop-out Rate								
•		25	25		50	50	- 75	75+	Average
No building, no area				-			1	1	79.15
Upto 30		1		2			2	9	70.72
20 - 50		4		4			•	1	29.03
50 -100		1		2			6	1	57.20
100 +		5		4			6	2	45.54

and only limited open space reveal drop rate of between 70 to 80 per cent; but once the school area increases to 50 sq.ft. per pupil drop-out rates decline to around 55 per cent. Open space and the availability of playground is, of course, inter-related. But the latter shows a more consistent relationship with the schools' capacity to retain pupils (Table 5.9). Schools

TABLE 5.9
Playground Area and Drop-out

Area of Play-	Drop-out Rate							
ground (sq.ft.)	<u></u>	25 - 50	50 - 75	75+	Average			
NIL	-	2	4	11	72.34			
∠_5000	6		8	3	48.32			
5000-10,000			2		48.31			
10,000 +		2			30.60			

with no playground have a drop-out rate of 72 per cent while it decline to around 48 per cent with the availability of playground of upto 10000 sq. ft. and further down to 31 per cent with the size of playground exceeding 10000 sq. ft.

Facilities, Educational Aids and Drop-Outs

Among the facilities, we have information on number of blackboards, tatpattis and library books. Schools with no

blackboards or only with one or two blackboards have the average drop-out rates of around 70 per cent while those with three or more blackboards reveal a drop-out rate between 40 to 44 per cent only (Table 5.10). Tatpattis have no equally sharp, relationship with drop-out rates (Table 5.11). Schools

Number of Blackboard and Drop-out Rate

Number of Blackboard		Drop-out Rate							
	∠ 25	25 - 50	50 - 75	75+	Average				
NIL		2	3	4	70.17				
			2	2	68.42				
2		2		4	69.50				
	5	4	6		40.26				
	• 3			2	40.06				
5 + more	3	3	3	2	43.33				

Number of Tatpattis and Drop-out Rate

Number of	Drop-out Rate							
Tatpattis	<u> </u>	25 = 50	50 - 75	75+	Average			
NIL	1			2	68.38			
3 - 5	2	•	3	1	51.33			
6 - 10	2		4	3	52.56			
11 - 20	5	3	4	7	58,60			
71 +	. 1	2	1	1	40.12			

with no <u>tatoattis</u> have, of course, the highest drop-out rates of 68 per cent but those with 3-5, 6-10, or 11-20 <u>tatoattis</u> show hardly any variation in the drop-out rate around an average of 54 per cent. Schools with over 20 <u>tatoattis</u>, of course, experienced a low drop-out rate, namely, of 40 per cent only.

A school with a library has lower drop-out rate than one without a library; and the number of library books are generally associated with drop-out negatively (Table 5.12). The schools with no library have a drop-out rate 65 per cent; those with library having upto 100, 100-200 or more than 200 books have drop-out rates of 64, 59 and 46 per cent respectively.

TABLE 5.12
Library Books and Drop-out Rate

Number of		Drop-out Rate									
Books	<u> </u>	25 - 50	50 - 75	75+	Average						
None	4	6	4	7	65.31						
Z 100	1	2	4	3	63.54						
100 - 200	2	2	4	5	58.81						
200 +	4	2			45.84						

Student Ald, Assistance and Droc-Out Rates

The per student expenditure on Applied Nutrition Programme is found to have no definite relationship with drop out (Table 5.13). As observed earlier, most schools had no expenditure on this item and such schools showed a drop-out rate of 50 per cent. A few schools spent upto Rs.3 per student per month under the programme and their drop-out rate averaged to a low figure of 28 per cent. But the schools spending between Rs.3 and 4 or Rs.4 and higher showed a high drop-out rates of 78 and 69 per cent respectively. Thus the relationship, if there was any, between the two was rather unexpected, higher expenditure per capita on ANP is associated with higher drop-out rates.

TABLE 5.13

Expenditure on ANP and Drop-out Rate

Expanditure		Dro	op-out Rate		
per student per month (%)	<u> </u>	25 - 50	50 - 75	75 ₊	Average
NEL	10	10	10	9 '	49.75
∠ 300	1	2		•	27.66
3.00 - 4.00			2	2	78.36
4.00 or more	•	•	3	3	68.69

Provision of free books was found to have a somewhat better relationship with the school's capacity to retain

pupils (Table 5.14). Schools giving free books to none of the students also had an average drop-out 76 per cent, those which gave free books to upto 20 per cent of their students, had an average drop-out rate of to 58 per cent. Once the schools were in a position to increase the coverage of students getting free books to between 20 and 50 per cent and higher than 50 per cent the drop-outs rates declined to 44 and 31 per cent respectively.

TABLE 5.14
Free Books and Drop-out Rate

Percentage Student		I	rop-out Ra	te	
receiving free books	Z 25		50 - 75	75+	Average
None	4	8	10	8	76.15
Upto 20%	2	2		5	57.57
20% to 50%	2	2	2	1	43.74
50% or more	3		2	•	30.80

Lastly, the distance of the headmaster's native place from the school was found to have an impact on the retention of pupils in the schools (Table 5.15). Schools which have headmasters coming from the same village where the school was located, showed a drop-out rate of 50 per cent which increased to 65 per cent if the headmaster came from outside the village but from within the block. But the drop rate increased to 71 per cent if the headmaster belonged to place outside the block.

Native Place of the Headmaster and Drop-out Rate

Place	Drop-out Rate								
	<u>/</u> 25	25 - 50	50 - 75	75+	Average				
Same Village	2	3	4	1	49.75				
Same Block		4		6	65.23				
Out side	2	5	4	7	71. 02				

Note: Same village and same block in rural areas and for urban areas, same locality and same town respectively.

III. Household Characteristics and Drop-Outs

household characteristics and drop-outs we have used the percentage of dropped out children to the number of children in
the age-group 6-14 years. We find that of the total population
in the school going age group in the sample households around
8 per cent are such who had enrolled at some time but are
currently out of school without completing the basic school
education. This percentage estimates to 10 per cent in the
rural areas, 9 per cent in the case of boys and 12 per cent in
the case of girls; and 5 per cent in the urban areas 4 per cent
in the case of boys and 7 per cent in the case of girls. These
estimates obviously are lower than those arrived on the basis
of school data or the household data reported earlier. The

current year; the estimates based on household data reported earlier use drop-out population and ever-enrolled population in the age-group 6-14; and the estimates used here use drop-out population and total population in the school going age age group in the households. The estimates are therefore, the highest in the first, lower in the second and the lowest in the last case.

(a) Caste and Drop-outs

The drop-out rate among the children belonging to different castes/communities indicate significant variations. The drop-outs constitute the highest population among the school going age population in the case of scheduled castes/tribe and backward castes (Table 5.16), and the lowest in the case of upper

TABLE 5.16

Castes and Drop-out Rate in Rural and Urban Areas
of the Sample Districts

				Dro	op-out	t Rate	33		
	Dur:	al Are	Urba	an Are	eas		Total		
Caste Group	-W	Ť	77	М	F	T	M	F	2
Upper Castes								5.12	
Backward Castes	7.17	10.88	8.21	7.69	3.70	6.33	7.21	10.28	8.08
Scheduled Castes/ Tribes	8.83	12.54	9.76	2.49	0.51	1.61	7.66	9.14	8.06
rrides Muslims	4.10	6.44	4.94	10.22	7.01	8.90	6.25	6.67	6.41
Others	0.0	0.0	0.0	16.67	0.0	8.33	8.33	0.0	5,56

caste Hindus. Both Scheduled Castes and Backward Castes have similar incidence of dropped-out children in the total sample; the former has somewhat higher incidence in the rural areas; but in the urban areas Schedulad Castes have a much lower incidence of drop-out than backward castes. Upper caste Hindu and Muslim bouseholds have similar drop-out rates in rural areas, but in the urban areas Muslim households have the highest incidence of drop-out, while upper caste Hindu households have the lowest, lower than one per cent, on their children as drop-outs.

ciated with drop-out the differential behaviour among castes show variation between the rural and urban areas to a certain extent. First, the children of the Muslim and 'other' communities have the highest drop-out rate, (8.90 and 8.33 respectively) in the urban areas, as against the highest incidence of drop-out amongst Scheduled Castes/Tribes and backward castes (9.76 and 8.21 respectively) in the rural areas. Second, except in the case of the upper castes, the girls of urban areas have dropped out of their schools in significantly lower proportion than boys, whereas in the rural areas girls of all caste groups had higher drop-out rates than of the boys. The difference between boys and girls was relatively more significant in the case of upper caste bouseholds than in the case of other caste groups, in the rural areas.

(b) Demographic Characteristics

The family size shows no continuous relationship with drop-outs, but one can easily discern a general tendency of the drop-out rate declining with the increase in the size of families (Table 5.17). The only plausible explanation for

TABLE 5.17
Family Size and Drop-out Rate

Family size	Market and Charles of Section 1999		1		out Re			Total	
No. of Members)	and the second second second	l Ares	is T	M	F	ies T	M	IVE	1
2	14.29	14.29	14.29	0.00	0.00	0.00	10.35	11.11	10.53
	5.74	6.25			0.00			4.92	4.89
		10.11			0.00		7.98	7.73	7.90
	6.34	9.20			0.53		5.83	7.05	6.26
6	6.96	6.04			3.85		6.90	5.57	6,43
7	5.23	9.49			6.17		5.30	8.73	6.46
	5.05	8.00			3.28		4.24	6.90	5.29
8 9 & 9+	1.72				3.45			5.99	3.71

this tendency may be that a larger family have enough adults to look after the productive and household activities to continue the children in the schools. It is difficult to verify this explanation, but a general trend of lower incidence of drop-out among higher families is noted both in rural and urban areas. At the same time a three member family, presumably consisting of two adults and a child is observed to have one of the lowest drop-out rate.

of women in the family would not require school-age girls to stay home for household chores. The data (Table 5.19), however, does not suggest such a relationship. The highest drop-out of girls is found among the households with a sex ratio between 1 to 1.25 both in the rural and urban areas. In case of boys the highest drop-out is in the households with lowest, less the 0.50, sex ratio. In the case of households with sex ratio in other ranges, the drop-out rates for girls are more or less similar around 8 per cent in the rural areas. In the urban areas households with a sex ratio of 1.25 and above show a very low drop-out rate of around 2 per cent, while those with low sex ratio (less than 0.75) have a higher drop-out rate.

TABLE 5.19

Sex Ratio and Drop-out Rate

Sex	Dag	Drop-out Rate ? Rural Areas Urban Areas Total								
Ratio	77	7	T	M	F		М	P	7	
>1.50	1.58	7.82	6.16	5.00	1.96	2.59	2.17	6.50	5.40	
1.25 - 1.50	3.58	8.79	6.31	1.79	2.06	1.96	3.28	7.18	5.41	
1.00 - 1.25	1.72	15.09	8.11	9.09	6.25	7.41	2.90	13.04	7.97	
0.75 - 1.00	5.75	6.93	6.18	2.72	3.28	2.97	5.29	6.19	5.63	
0.50 - 0.75	5.13	7.52	5.70	6.00	3.06	5.03	5.29	6.32	5.56	
Upto 0.50	7.36	8.87	7.49	4.24	5.26	4.34	6.72	8.02	6.83	

The next variable considered is the number of very young children (below 6 years) in the household. The trend of the relationship between this variable and drop-out rates (Table 5.20) suggest a trend rather contradicting the hypotheses that very young children in the family may necessitate staying home by not-so-young to look after them. Particularly in the rural areas we found that families with no infants have higher drop-out rates than those with one or two infants and the latter have higher drop-out than those with three or four infants. In the urban areas, however, we find a positive association between the number of infants in the family and the drop-out rates.

Presence of Children Below 6 Years of Age and
Drop-out Rate

			Dr	op-out	Rate	3			
No. of Children	Rur	al Ar	eas	Urb	an Ar	eas		rotal	
oelow 6 years age				И	P	1	М	1	71
None	7.35	8.82	7.85	3.81	1.83	3.00	6.63	7.24	6.84
One	6.29	7.24	6.59	3.91	2.82	3,65	5.69	6.15	5.84
Two	3.22	7.72	4.66	6.78	6.00	6.42	3.74	7.31	4.98
Three	2.58	8.65	4.70	11.76	0.00	6.90	3.95	7.03	5.06
Pour	0.00	3.57	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.33	0.95

Such an inverse relationship between the two variables in the case of rural sample might be because of one of the following factors: a) in rural areas, the joint family system is, to some extent, still prevalent and, therefore, other members of the household care for the very young non-school going age children;
b) the presence of old people (above 60 years) who are nonworkers leave the school going children unaffected from the
responsibilities of the very young children of the family.

We do find a positive relationship between the presence of old persons of above 60 years age in the family and drop-out rate among their school going children (Table 5.21). The relationship is consistent both in the rural and urban cases, but primarily in the case of drop-out of boys. In the case of girls the relationship is reverse though rather feeble.

TABLE 5.21

Presence of Persons above 60 Years Age in the Drop-out Rate

No. of Persons		Dr	op-ou	t Rate	e !			-	
above 60 years	Rural Areas _			Urb:	an Ar	eas	13		
age	N	P	T	N	1	1	N	P	T
None	6.48	7.94	6.96	5.38	2.67	4.72	6.04	6.58	6.2
One	4.67	7.93	5.76	4.48	4.08	4.31	4.66	7.46	5.6
200	0.47	9.09	3.41	3.03	3.85	3.39	0.81	8.09	3.40

In the case of girls one would expect that the number of housewives in the family would positively influence their retention in the school and therefore a negative relationship can be hypothesised between the number of housewives in the family and drop-out rates. But the lowest drop-out rate is found among the families which had no housewife (4.45) and the

highest among such households which had six housewives (Table 5.22). This is more or less true both for rural and urban areas and for boys and girls. This by and large suggests that the need to look after the household work is not a major affecting retention of children in thesehool.

TABLE 5.22

Number of Housewives in the Family and Drop-out Rate

No. of housewives				Drop-	out R	ate !			
in the	Ru	cal Arc	as	Url	oan A	reas			
family	М	2	4	М		7	M		2
None	3.24	6.89	4.45	3.69	2.36	3.20	3.31	6.14	4.26
One	7.83	7.46	5.79	3.73	2.79	3.35	6.83	6.04	6.55
Two	6.18	11.64	8.00	8.33	3.77	6.40	6.43	10.37	7.79
Three	4.68	8.97	6.02	10.34	6.67	9.09	5.50	2.73	6.49
Pour	4.17	15.38	8.11	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.23	10.53	6.00
Five	12.50	0.00	8.70	0.00	0.00	0.00	12.50	0.00	8.70
Six	20.00	0.00	16.67	0.00	0.00	0.00	20.00	0.00	16.67

(c) Education, Occupation and Income of Households and Drop-outs

In this section we have examined the drop-out rates in different groups of families with different levels of education, different occupations and income levels. The level of education in the family has been determined on the basis of the highest education attained by any of its member(s). The occupation of the household has been determined in three ways: (a) occupation

of the head of the household; (b) occupation engaging the largest number of family workers; and (c) occupation providing the largest income to the family. The income level of the household has been specified in terms of per capita income.

The highest educational level attained by any member of the household is found to have an impact on the incidence of drop-out among school going age children. The relationship is particularly clear in the case of rural households where with the increase in the highest educational level in the family, the drop-cut rates decline consistently, both in case of boys and girls. The relationship is found to hold in the urban households as well though loss consistently. The

TABLE 5.23

Highest Level of Education in the Family and Drop-out Rate

Iighest			Dr	op-ou	t Rate	2			
Education	Ru:	ral Ar	eas	Ur	ban A	reas		Total	
in the <u>Family</u>	N		7	М	ì	<u> </u>	M		T .
Graduate	1.49	2.03	1.72	0.68	0.00	0.39	1.15	1.16	1.15
XI - XII .	2.95	5.08	2.82	3.01	4.94	3.74	2.97	5.04	3.77
IX + X	3.17	5.44	4.12	0.77	0.00	0.44	2.70	4.37	3.40
VI - VIII	4.74	9.02	6.05	6.35	1.67	4.07	4.90	7.57	5.79
Up to V	8.04	10.70	8.79	9.64	4.95	8.05	8.21	9.93	8.70
Literate	8.77	12.73	9.97	4.69	7.04	5.53	5.39	10.50	7.07
Illiterate	8.00	10.00	9.00	8.63	5.48	7.55	7.10	4.76	8.32

households in which one of the members has a university degree have lowest percentage of drop-outs amongst their children, girls as well as boys, both in rural and urban areas. It is not always that the households with no literate members have the highest drop-out, but is generally observed that the households with no or little education among their members have significantly higher drop-outs than those with some of their members having completed school education or gone beyond. This is generally true both for rural and urban areas and for drop-out among boys and girls.

Occupation wise, the highest drop-out rates are found among children of the families of agricultural labour followed by cultivators, irrespective of whether we define family occupation as the occupation of the head of the Lousehold, employer of largest number of family members of the largest source of income (Table 5.24, 5.25, 5.26). But there are variations in the pattern. The trader families followed by those with crafts and service as family occupation have generally the lowest proportions of drop-outs among the school going age children. There are, however, some variations in this pattern between rural and urban households and drop-out of boys and girls.

153 TABLE 5.24

Occupation of Head of the Family and Drop-out Rate

			Drop	o-out	Rate	•			
Occupation	Ru	ral Arc	eas	Ur	ban A	reas		Tota	
"하기 용상 <mark>에</mark> 기를 잃었는데 모르다 하는 그리는 말로 그렇게 되었습니다.	M	P	7	М	P	Ţ	M		7
Not working/ Retired	4.92	7.13	5.62	1.72	1.74	1.73	4.65	6.51	5.25
Cultivation	9.59	21.51	12.47	1.37	0.00	0.86	7.95	14.71	9.78
Agr. Labour	15.43	13.12	14.80	6.67	9.09	7.53	13.06	11.70	12.66
Artisan	9.03	3.57	6.64	6.32	5.04	5.80	7.55	4.33	6.19
Trader	2.69	4.97	3.60	1.55	0.74	1.22	2.36	3.72	2.91
Service	5.69	10.43	7.26	9.70	3.50	7.51	6.47	8.96	3.71

Family Occupation According to number of Workers and Drop-out Rate

Family		Prop-out Rate:									
Occupation	Ru	Rural Areas_			Urban Areas			Доtal			
	M	I	1	71	7	T	М	7	1		
Equally Divid	ed 3.51	7.50	4.79	0.85	1.43	1.06	3.31	6.94	4.50		
Cultivation	12.36	20.56	14.75	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.89	13.92	10.42		
Agricultural Labour	13.64	22.92	16.91	2.27	7.14	4.17	9.85	17.11	12,50		
Artisan	10.39	4.69	7.80	11-11	2.38	7.89	10.74	3.77	7.84		
Trade	5.00	9.85	6.63	4.17	1.54	2.92	4.82	7.11	5.67		
Service	6.40	5.47	6.09	5.49	3.73	4.78	6.19	4.97	5.77		

154 TABLE 5.26

Family Occupation According to Source of Highest Income and Drop-out Rate

	Drop-out Rate;									
Family Occupation	Rural Areas			Urban Areas			Total			
	И	7	T	M	P	T	M	P	T	
Equally divided	3.80	8.37	5.22	0.00	2.50	1.11	3.55	7.91	4.93	
Cultiv ation	11.04	16.87	12.54	1.74	0.00	1.10	9.24	12.07	10.04	
Agr. Labour	15.03	15.07	15.04	4.69	9.09	6.19	12.24	13.21	12.54	
Artisan	9.25	4.44	7.14	6.31	5.15	5.81	7.65	4.80	6.46	
Trade	2.46	6.67	4.07	1.83	0.63	1.32	2.33	5.32	3.50	
Service	6.07	5.35	5.85	9.77	3.33	7.17	6.60	4.94	6.07	

In general the various occupational groups have the following descending order of Irop-out rates; agricultural labourers, cultivators, artisans, service occupation and trade, the range varying between 12.66 to 2.91 per cent. The order is the same in the rural as well urban areas. But the highest drop-out among girls is seen in the cultivator families, in aggregate and in rural areas. Further, artisan and agricultural labour households are found to have lower drop-out among girls than boys. Among families with service occupation drop-out among girls is much higher than boys in the rural areas and the situation is just the reverse in the urban areas.

The exercise to relate drop-out rates with per capita income ranges did not yield a clear corroboration of the

hypotheses attributing discontinuation of school education to poverty. The higher per capita income ranges of the households did not necessarily show lower drop-out rates (Table 5.27).

No doubt, the highest per capita income range of Rs.10,000 and above had one of the lowest drop-out among the children, but a similarly low rate of drop-out was also observed in the relatively low income range of Rs.400-500. It is, however, seen that if we divide the per capita income ranges into two groups, less than 500 and more than 600, there is found to be a tendency of drop-out rates falling with rise in per capita income ranges; within each of these groups. The range of Rs.500-600, however, does not fit in either groups. This pattern generally holds both for drop-out rates among boys and girls in the rural and urban areas.

TABLE 5.27

Per Capita Income and Drop - out Rate

Per Capita	Drop-out Rate:								
Income group	Rural Areas			Urban Areas					
(Rs per annum)	Charles The Control of the Control o		7	N	U	2	И	7	7
1000 or more	5.64	7.56	6.35	2.45	0.47	1.60	4.59	4.83	4.69
750 - 1000	8.48		8.41	3.33	7.69	5.16	7.65	8.20	7.87
600 – 7 50	6.71	7.88	7.11	6.00	7.02	6.37	6.58	7.72	6.98
500 - 600	5.33		6.10	8.33	3.45	6.49	5.75	6.91	6.16
400 - 500	4.20	6.51	4.91	3.26	2.50	3.03	4.02	5.74	4.59
300 - 400	4.31	8.94	5.70	5,61	1.41	3.93	4.57	6.80	5.29
Less than 300	5.44	8,68	6.33	7.06	4.26	6.06	5.57	8.17	6.3

Why do we observe such discontinuity in the relationship between these two variables? Is it that the income levels have in general an impact on drop-outs of children from the school, but at low income levels, the assistance provided by the State acts independently to reduce the drop-out rates? With similar assistance within the group the tendency of dropout rising with lower income levels holds even here as in the case of higher income ranges of the households. We do not have any direct evidence to verify this proposition, except that the scheduled castes which belong generally to the lowest income ranges, get certain special assistance which may encourage them to keep their children in the school despite generally low income levels of their families. To the extent it is so, it is an encouraging trend and suggests general effectiveness of the provision of special assistance to these groups. But our earlier findings suggested that the drop-out rates are the highest among the children belonging to scheduled castes which renders the validity of the proposed explanation somewhat doubtful.

The demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the households thus provide us, but only limited explanation of drop-out among their children. Family size, was found negatively associated with drop-out rates, particularly in the rural areas, so was the presence of infants and aged in the family. Educational

levels of the household were, found to be clearly related negetively with drop-out rates. Of the other socio-economic characteristics caste and occupation showed a definite pattern: scheduled castes and backward classes, and agricultural labourers and cultivators having higher drop-out rates among their children. In order to supplement the analysis based on these associations, we have attempted a probe into the question of drop-out by asking the households directly about the reasons of dro-outs; and also then associating their responses with certain socio-economic characteristics. The various reasons given by the households according to the order of their importance, are as follows:

TABLE 5.28

Reasons for Drop - out (%)

	이 그는 아이들에게 하는 아이들이 그 때에 생각하게 하는 아이들이 살아 하는 것이 하는 것이 되었다. 그는 그래로 그들은 그를 다 했다.	
1.	Bad company of friends	56.95*
2.	Can't afford expenses	54.08
3.	Child required to work to supplement family income	48.64
4.	School timings not suitable	29.61
5.	Lack of interest	21.30
6.	Child's help needed in household work	21.00
7.	Others (failure in examination illness etc.)	5.74

^{(*}The percentage do not add up to 100 due to multiple responses.)

The above reasons for leaving the studies incomplete by the children indicate two significant aspects of the conditions of families of drop-outs. First, there seems to be a lack of efforts on the part of the elder members of the household to retain their children in the school, either to keep them away from 'bad company' or to infuse interest among them for education. Secondly, the weak economic condition of families discourages them to send their children to school. Although education at basic level is free yet sending children beyond an age to the school may involve cost to the extent school going child cannot help his family improve its economic condition by undertaking some employment. Reclassifying these reasons we find that 35 per cent of the responses related to the lack of positive attitude towards education either in terms of failure to prevent the children from falling into 'bad company' or to enthuse interest in education. The rest 65 per cent of the responses reflect some objective, mainly economic characteristics of the household.

we find that in the rural areas the reason 'bad company of friends' has been mentioned by a larger percentage of respondents (40%) with no literate member in the family than those with some literate member(s) (20.93%), educated upto high school (26.30) or with higher education (12.50). One-fourth (25%) of the respondents, in whose family some of the members were having higher education, said that the 'child was required to

work to supplement family income. The similar reason was given by 21.01, and 24.42 per cent of the respondents belonging to household of which some of the members were educated upto high school and were 'literate', respectively. Only 6.67 per cent of respondents belonging to the families of all illiterate members gave this reason for drop-out of their children. Although the relationship between the two variables is not consistent yet it indicate that children belonging to the families of all illiterate members left their studies on their own due to their friend circle. Their elders, it seems, did not try sincerely to compel their children to continue their studies. On the other hand, children of the literate or educated families left their studies mainly due to economic compulsions.

Variations in reasons for drop-out between the rural and urban areas. In the rural areas drop-outs are attributed to 'bad company' by 65 per cent, and need to work to supplement family income by 55 per cent of the households; in the urban areas no household mentioned 'bad company' and only 18 per cent mentioned need to work for the child as the reason for drop-out. In the urban areas 43 per cent of the households attributed their inability to afford expenses' as the reason for drop-out, the corresponding percentage of this reason was 55, in the rural areas. Lack of interest however accounted for 17 per cent of cases in the urban areas and for only 8 per cent in the rural

areas. It looks that while economic reasons are predominant in both rural areas, the rural areas also have a greater part of the explanation in the attitude to education than the urban areas.

For the purpose of associating the pattern of reasons with the characteristics of the respondent households, we have selected two variables; educational level of the household, as the determinant of the attitude to education and per capita income, as that of the economic condition.

To associate reasons for drop-out with per capita income levels of the households we divided the sample in just two categories, those with a per capita income level of upto Rs.750, and those with higher per capita income levels. In the rural areas, 'bad company' emerged as the most often mentioned reason among those in the lower income group and inability to afford expenses' of education among the households in the higher income group. This finding is somewhat intriguing in so far as the higher income groups more often mention the economia handicap rather than the low income group. Probably the high income groups have somewhat different perception of requirements than the poor. So far as the fee and other expenses charged by the schools are concerned they are similar for both groups except that of those in low income group may also belong to the special groups like SC/ST and may be available of assistance to meet the cast. But it looks that other requirements such as clothing etc., are viewed by higher income group differently

than by the households in the low income group. From some data that we collected on the household expenditure on children's education we find that those in higher income ranges spend much more than those in low income ranges on schooling of their children: those with household income of above Rs.10,000 per annum spend on average of Rs.257. those in income range of Rs.5,000 to 10,000 Rs.154 and those with less than Rs.500 income Rs.122 per annum on this item.

In the urban areas the relationship between economic status and drop-out was found to be direct. Those in lower per capita income ranges attributed 50 per cent of the cases of drop-outs to their inability to afford expenses and 30 per cent cases to need for household work. In the higher income ranges these reasons were mentioned by 5 and 17 per cent of the households, respectively. In the lower income ranges 25 per cent cases were also attributed to lack of interest, in the higher income ranges this reason did not feature. The fact that low income households in the rural areas attributed drop-outs to a significant extent to the factors such as 'bad company' and there in urban areas to lack of interest suggests that their attitude to education affects their urge to retain their children in the school to a considerable extent.

CHAPTER VI

Summary and Conclusions

The issues involved in the universalisation of school education are highly complex, as is evident from the findings on various aspects presented in the preceding chapters. No doubt, universal provision of facilities in terms of availability of schools within reasonably accessible distance is a necessary condition for this task. This condition is reported to have been met in the State of Uttar Pradesh in respect of around three-fourths of population; and plans are under way to reduce the shortfall in this respect, but it looks that the resource constraints would make the progress slow and opening of schools in all the relatively unserved areas may take at least another decade.

But does the provision of a school within accessible distance ensure universalisation of education in terms of enrolment, regularity in attendance and retention in the school till the completion of the school education? Evidence suggests a negative answer to this question. In the present case, for example, lack of a school at convenient distance has rarely featured as a factor influencing entry and continuation in the educational stream. Of course, our study started from the school end, so far as the sample survey is concerned, and therefore, the existence of a school was already ensured. To this extent it 'controls' the influence of that

variable, and may throw light on the question posed above.

It is not easy to identify the factors that possibly influence a child's enrolment and retention in the school. Both class of variables, those relating to the school and tiose characterising the household influence entry and continuation in the school; and under each of these class there are several, not always clearly identifiable, factors that determine the capacity of the school to attract and retain the pupil and the capacity and willingness of the household to ensure the pupil's enrolment, attendance and continuation in the school. And determining relative importance of the identified variables is still more difficult task. Taking conquizance of all these constraints the present study has attempted to identify the factors, with the nelp of implicit and explicit hypotheses, and assess their relative importance using empirical data collected from a large sample of schools and households. In this chapter we have attempted to recapitulate our findings and relate them with each other to draw certain general conclusions and policy implications. The findings have been summarised under the framework of the major objectives of the study, namely estimates of enrolment, attendance and drop-outs: and inter-group variations among them inter-group variations in these aspects of schooling of children; and, examination of the relationship between school and household characteristics with the three dimensions of school education.

I. Estimates

Estimates of enrolment, attendance and drop-outs are available from or could be arrived at on the basis of data regularly collected by the official machinery as a part of educational administration. We have attempted estimates of these phenomena not as an independent exercise in itself but to be able to have the necessary classifications and arrangements required for the central part of our analysis relating to the analysis of factors hypothesized to influence them. Adjustments are necessary both in the official data and those collected by us, and the reliability of one cannot be vouched to be better than of the other. Similarity between the two estimates, however, infuses confidence in both.

1) Enrolment: The overall enrolment rate estimated by us, as a percentage of children currently at school to the total children in the household, in the age group 6-14 years, comes to 67 per cent: 75 per cent for boys and 55 per cent for girls. The official estimates based on current school enrolment to relevant age group population are 91 in the class I-V (6-11 years) and 37 in class V-VIII (11-14 years), making the aggregate of around 80 per cent; 91 for boys and 60 for girls. Allowing for a 10 per cent margin of over-estimation for the inclusion of children below six or above 14 years in the school enrolment in classes I-VIII, these estimates would be 70 in

aggregate, 80 for boys and 57 per cent for girls. Our estimates are thus comparable with, though somewhat lower than these figures. To the extent, the information collected from the households could be taken as reliable, this difference may account for an element of inflated enrolment figures maintained by the schools for the purposes of availing assistance.

We find a significant difference in the enrolment rates between the rural and urban areas. Overall, the percentage of currently enrolled children in the 6-14 years group in the rural household is 63 per cent and in the urban household 83 per cent. In the urban areas 86 per cent of boys and 77 per cent of girls are in the schools, the corresponding percentages for the rural areas are 73 and 51 per cent.

ii) Attendance: The assessment of regularity in attendance of enrolled pupils was attempted both on the basis of the information from the households and school records. From the households, we found that around 61 per cent of the children were regular in attending the school (attending at least 20 out of 25 school days in a month); 24 per cent were irregular (15 to 20 days) and around 15 per cent were highly irregular (less than 15 days). No significant difference was observed between boys and girls in attendance. There were, however, significant differences between the rural and the urban areas: 53 per cent of the rural as against 82 per cent of the urban

pupils were regular in attending the schools; and the highly irregular constituted 20 per cent in the rural and 4 per cent in the urban areas.

The estimates based on school data are quite comparable with those based on information from the households. Ninety per cent of the schools had over 70 per cent of their pupils regular in attending school. And on the day of visit the attendance was found to be 63 per cent in the junior basic schools and 69 per cent in the senior basic schools. While the situation in three districts Pithoragarh, Hamirpur and Gonda was found to be better than average, the situation in Sitapur seemed rather dismal. Here 40 per cent schools had less than 70 per cent students as 'regular' in attendance, and on the day of visit, all junior basic schools had less than 65 per cent attendance and average attendance in all schools turned out to be only 33 per cent.

iii) Drop-Out: Using the school data the estimates of dropout are as follows: 62 per cent of the pupils entering class
I leave school before they pass class V, and of those entering
class VI 18 per cent drop-out before passing class VIII. Of
the 100 children enrolled in class I, 67 are estimated to dropout before completing basic school education, i.e. upto class
VIII. The situation is more or less similar in the rural and
urban areas. On an average 15 per cent of the enrolled pupils
drop-out every year from different classes. The information
collected from the sample households reveals that in the

population 6-14 years 15 per cent were currently out of school though they were enrolled at some stage. Brop-out among girls was certainly higher than among boys: 22 per cent of the school-going-age girls were drop-outs from schools as against 12 per cent among boys.

As is found in other studies, the highest drop-outs were in classes I and II: 30 per cent pupils in the rural and 25 per cent in the urban areas dropped out in these two classes. Age-wise, however, the highest drop-outs both among boys and girls and in rural and urban areas occured in the ages of 10, 11 and 12 years. The class-wise and age-wise drop-outs put together are suggestive of late entry or stagnation of children in the school. Age-wise situation also suggests that the drop-outs most often take place when the child acquires an age when he or she could be of some help in household chores or productive activity.

II. Inter-Group Differences

We have attempted estimates of enrolment, attendance and drop-out rates for different caste groups, and occupational categories of the households and the findings are summarised below.

i) <u>Enrolment</u>: Wide variations are found among the caste groups in the enrolment rates of their children. Upper caste Hindus have four-fifths of their school-age children enrolled while

among the scheduled caste/tribes this proportion is only around 50 per cent. The differences are sharper in the rural areas than in the urban areas. In the urban areas children of Muslim households have the lowest enrolment rate, and in the rural areas the SC/ST household showed a poorest enrolment rates. The scheduled caste/tribes households in the urban areas had 87 per cent of their children enrolled as against only 31 per cent in the rural areas. Even granting that the urban situation in general provides conducive conditions for higher enrolment, the difference suggests that the scheduled caste/tribe families in urban areas are more aware of the special facilities available to them than those in the rural areas.

Occupation-wise, trading household, followed by those with 'service' occupation had the highest enrolment rates; in urban areas families with 'service' occupation scored over traders.

Agricultural labour and artisan households came at the bottom.

The differences were sharper in the case of boys than of girls, particularly in the rural areas.

ii) Attendance: Regularity of attendance by children belonging to different castes and communities follows a similar pattern as enrolment. The upper caste Hindus have the highest and scheduled castes/tribe households the lowest percentage of their children regular in attending schools. The differences are sharper in the rural areas than in the urban areas. Attendance of children

from households with different occupation also has the similar pattern as enrolment rates among their children, except that artisans in the rural areas have a somewhat better record than cultivators in attendance, while the situation was found to be the reverse in respect of enrolment.

iii) <u>Drop-Outs</u>: Similar pattern is seen in respect of drop-outs. In the rural areas scheduled castes/tribes households had the highest drop-outs, closely followed by backward classes and Muslims and the upper caste Hindu have the lowest drop-outs among their children. Muslims, however, had the highest drop-out rate in the urban areas; and the scheduled castes rather low drop-outs, higher than the upper castes only. The pattern was similar both for male and female children.

Trading households had the best record of retaining their children in the school also. Artisans also did relatively better in the rural greas. But families with 'service' occupation, which were second only to trading families in terms of enrolment, are found to have relatively poor record in attendance both in rural and urban areas. Cultivators had a better record than artisans in enrolment, but in respect of retention of their children in the schools they have receded lower, being better off than agricultural labourers only.

III. Household Characteristics and Education of Children

The above account of the pattern of inter-group differences provides only an idea of the association between the broad social and occupational characteristics of households and their performance in respect of the school education of their children. The association might reflect both the differential attitude and variations in objective conditions of the households belonging to different groups. In order, however, to establish any causal connection between characteristics of the households and the schooling record of their children, variables expected to have a causal relation with enrolment, attendance and retention of children in the school need to be considered. We summarise below the findings of our analysis relating to these variables.

i) Demographic Structure: In principle, it is possible to hypothesize certain relationships between the size and structure of the family and schooling of the children in a given environment. Large sized families may not need children at home, but may find it difficult to afford expenses of schooling. Worker-non-worker ratio in the family may also have similarly two way influence on children's education. The presence of infants in the house may require relatively older children to stay back from the school to look after them. But if there are aged, retired persons in the household, the children could be free from this task to attend school. A girl may be required to stay at home if there is no housewife to look after the household chores.

In practice, the relationship is not found to be always direct and symmetrical because of several variables intervening at the same time. Enrolment situation is found to hardly bear any clear relationship with the size of the households. The dependency ratio is found to have a positive relationship with enrolment in the rural areas. Only this relationship may be a simple reflection of the factual situation that the households which have most of their children as non-earners, would obviously have larger proportion of them free from other activities to attend schools, and those having their children engaged in some productive activity and thus a lower dependency ratio, have small proportion of their children in the schools. This implication is found particularly valid in the case of girls amongst whom the enrolment rates and dependency ratio in the household is found consistently positively related. At the same time, it also implies that the capacity to afford expenses, to the extent it is a function of earner-non-earner ratio among family members, is not an important factor in children's enrolment in the rural areas. In the urban areas, variations in enrolment rates among household with different dependency ratios, are not significant; nor are the two variables, in any way related a consistent manner.

The presence of infants in the household is found to affect enrolment of school-going-age children adversely. With the highest enrolment rate in the household with no infants, the rate declines

consistently with one or more infants, in the urban areas. In the rural areas too the relationship holds to the extent, the households with no infants have the highest enrolment rates among their children. The relationship is found to hold particularly consistently in case of enrolment of girls both in the rural and the urban areas. The implication seems clear: the need to look after their younger brothers and sisters compels the children, particularly girls, to stay away from the schools. To the extent, old members of the household can take this responsibility, they can enrol in the schools. This proposition is found to hold in the rural areas, where the households with no old members have the lowest and those with one or two old members correspondingly higher enrolment rates; but not in the urban areas. It looks grand-parents are a help in the rural areas, but not necessarily in the urban areas.

The hypothesis that availability of adult women as housewives to look after the household tasks would positively influence the enrolment is found to hold in the case of girls in
the rural areas; but not for girls in urban areas nor for boys
in either location. That this variable affects girls' enrolment
is quite understandable in so far as it is the girls in the
school going age group who would substitute for the housewives.
That the proposition does not hold in urban areas can be explained
in terms of use of maids and domestic servants in cities and towns.

So far as the regularity of attendance of the enrolled children in the schools is concerned the different demographic characteristics of the households show a somewhat different pattern than in respect of enrolment. While family size is not found to have any consistent influence on attendance, a rise in dependency ratio is generally accompanied by a decline in the regularity of the attendance of children in the school. It seems that though the households with a high dependency ratio may enrol most of their children in the school, some of them are required to stay at home frequently to help in the household or productive activities; or then the few adults who are busy working to support the family are not in a position to care to see whether their children are regularly attending the school or not. The presence of infants bears no definite relationship with attendance in the school, but the proportion of regular students increases and that of the highly irregular ones declines as one moves from households having no old person, to one and two old persons in the family. The presence or the number of housewives does not seem to influence the regularity in school attendance of the children.

So far as the <u>drop-outs</u> are concerned, their proportion in the child population does not seem to bear any logical relationship with the most of the demographic characteristics of the households. Larger families have lower drop-out rates than smaller families; families with higher dependency ratio have lower drop-out rates; number of infants in the family bears no

relation with drop-out rates, but those with one or two old members have lower drop-out rates than ones with no such members. But larger the number of housewives in the family, higher is the incidence of drop-out, including among girls. Thus it seems that while the demographic structure of the households, affects enrolment and to a certain extent, the regularity of attendance also, but once a child is enrolled and attends the school regularly or irregularly, the stage at which the child leaves school, either in between or after completing school education, does not seem to get directly influenced by the size and structure of the family.

ii) Education in the Family: The one variable that has the most consistent relationship with the aspects of schooling considered here is the educational level of the family. The level of the highest educational attainment by any member of the family is found to influence enrolment rates and regularity in attendance positively and drop-out population among children negatively. Enrolment rates are the highest, 92 per cent in the rural and 97 per cent in urban areas in the households with some member having a university degree; the rates go on declining with only 12, 10, 8 and 5 years of the maximum schooling of any member in the family. This relationship holds both in case of boys and girls and in rural and urban areas. The all-illiterate families or those with only few years schooling do not, however, necessarily have the lowest enrolment rates.

Regularity in attendance is even more consistently related with educational level of the family. Among the rural families those with a graduate member have 65 per cent children regular and 11 per cent highly irregular, those with a matriculate have 59 per cent regular and 14 per cent highly irregular and all illiterate families have and 19 per cent of their enrolled children regular and 57 per cent highly irregular in attendance. In the urban areas the relationship is similar but not as consistent as in the rural areas.

Retention of an enrolled child in the school is also found directly and consistently influenced by the educational background of the household, particularly in the rural areas. Dropouts constitute as low as 2 per cent of the school going age population in the households with a graduate, 4 per cent in those with a matriculate and 9 per cent in those with primary school as the highest education in the family. Those with lower educational levels or illiterate have 10 per cent of their children as drop-outs from school. In the urban areas, the relationship exists but not similarly consistently.

Thus the overall influence of educational background of the households on the education of children is quite clearly evident. In the urban areas, other factors seem to counterbalance the effects of education to some extent. And the all illiterate families are not necessarily performing the worst in enrolment, but they are least able to make their children attend regularly and continue in the school.

Poverty is most often advanced as an argument for the inability of parents to enrol the children in the school and to continue their education. Economic handicap is expected to affect children's education in two wasy: inability of the parents to bear expenses of schooling and need for the school-age children to work to supplement household income.

The economic condition of the households as indicated by their per capita income levels is certainly found to bear a positive relation with enrolment, both in rural and urban areas and in case of boys as well as girls. Households with above Rs.1000 per capita income have 78 per cent of their children enrolled in rural and 95 per cent in urban areas. The percentages decline continuouly as we go down to the lower ranges of per capita income and reach 56 per cent enrolment in the rural and 73 per cent in the urban areas in the case of the lowest per capita income level, i.e. Rs.200 and 300.

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Regularity in attendance is, however, not equally consistently related with per capita income levels of the households. in fact households with lower per capita income levels have a relatively higher percentage of their children regular in attending school. And drop-out rates also do not bear a clear relationship with per capita income levels of the households.

Thus it looks that the economic status of a household is important in the initial decision of a household to enrol a child

in the school. Once enrolled, economic disadvantage does not necessarily come in the way of a child's regularity and continuation in the school. This is also borne out by the pattern of reasons given by the households for non-enrolment, irregular attendance and drop-out. Poverty and economic handicap is stated most frequently as the reason for non-enrolment. For irregular attendance which is primarily a rural problem it seems that need for occasional help at home is important, but a large proportion of absentees do not perform any task at home. Nor is the reason of inability to afford their expenses in the school is relevant, because the expenses, if any, are incurred in case of an enrolled child whether he or she is regular in attending the school or not. In the case of drop-outs, particularly in the rural areas, the non-economic reasons such as 'bad company' of the pupil and lack of interest constitute the most often mentioned reason, though inability to afford expenses and need for work by the child to help in household work or to supplement family income is also mentioned as an important reason. Surprisingly it is the educated and economically better placed parents who give the economic reasons and the economically weak and educationally backward households the non-economic reasons most often. It thus looks that attendance and drop-outs are quite often influenced by reasons other than the bousehold's economic condition. can be surmised here that the conditions in the school play a relatively more important role in these phenomena than is the case of enrolment.

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IV. School Characteristics and Attendance & Drop-out

As was observed earlier, the non-existence of a school within reasonable distance does not appear a serious handicap, particularly in the sample areas we have studied. Not many respondents have also mentioned 'distance to school' as a reason for non-enrolment. Only nine per cent stated this factor for explaining the non-enrolment of their children. But there are other characteristics that vary from school to school and area to area. We have identified some of these factors and attempted their relationship with regularity in attendance and drop-outs.

A large <u>number of pupils per teacher</u> may mean little individual attention to them and lead to irregularity of attendance and eventual drop-out. In the sample schools, pupil-teacher ratio is not found to be very high and variations among schools are also low. Yet one finds some tendency of better attendance record and lower 'drop-outs' in schools with lower pupil-teacher ratio. The relationship is particularly strong in the case of drop-out. Schools with no building have a significantly lower attendance and higher drop-out than those with a building; but larger member of rooms do not necessarily lead to better performance in attendance and retention of the pupils. Yet, the highest attendance is found in the schools with four rooms and lowest drop out in those with five and more rooms. It seems that the member of rooms do have a positive effect provided that there is a room for each class, fust one. two or the

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do not make much of a difference. Total area available with a school, covered and uncovered, and particularly availability of playgrounds is, however, found to be more consistently related with attendance and drop-out, than is the covered space and number of rooms in the school building. In a way, it implies that a school which could provide more scope for activities outside the class-rooms is in a much better position to induce the children to regularly attend and continue in the school. Even the seating facilities such as tatpattis or daris do not seem to matter very much. A blackboard per class is, however, a must and the availability of one to five or more blackboards in the school is found to continuously increase the attendance and reduce drop-out. To the extent, a blackboard symbolises, howsoever crudely, the method and effectiveness of teaching, it can be said that the technology and quality of instruction has an important influence on the pupils' attendance and continuation in the school. The differences are also found to be significant between the schools with a <u>library</u> and those without, which also goes to support the effectiveness of instructional aids in sustaining the pupils' interest.

Do the measures of <u>student aid and assistance</u> induce the pupils to regularly attend the school? We have considered here two items: <u>food under Applied Nutrition Programme</u> and re

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free books to the pupils. The coverage of both these measures is found to be highly limited: 39 out of 52 sample schools had no expenditure on ANP and 30 had no free distribution of books. Still an influence of these measures was discernible in so far as the attendance improved with increase in the per student expenditure on ANP and with increase in the percentage coverage of students under the 'free books' scheme.

Drop-out rates were, however, not found to be related with expenditure under ANP, but they were found to decline with increase in percentage of children provided with free books.

Finally, a factor that seems to make significant difference in the attendance and drop-out situation in a school is the native place of the headmaster. Attendance was found high and drop-outs low in schools with a local headmaster and attendance low and drop-out quite high in the schools where headmaster came from a distance. It seems that the local headmaster is better able to be regular himself in the school and more effective in the school and outside to retain children in the school than an outsider.

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V. Concluding Observations

The implications that can be drawn from the findings of our study have bearing upon several aspects of economic and social development and planning, and implementation of the programme of universalisation of school education. And there is found to be a high degree of fusion among the various social

and economic factors that are expected to influence the schooling of children. By and large, the enrolment of children in the school is influenced by the economic status of the household with which the educational background of the family, the other most important factor influencing children's education, is also more or less coterminus. Lack of a positive attitude towards education is also found to be an important inhibiting factor, but that also operates mostly among the families with little or no educational background and with low economic status. The economic status and educational background of the family are given and cannot be easily manipulated by policy instruments in the short run; and betterment of economic position through various developmental programmes and expansion of education can be achieved only in a relatively longer period of time. Similarly, certain demographic characteristics such as the presence of infants in the family which are found to influence enrolment, attendance and continuation of children in the school, are also given in the short run.

In the short run one or two suggestions, of course, come to one's mind. While the educational background of the household cannot be changed, the lack of positive attitude that results from lack of education could be remedied to some extent through some other instrumentality. Mention may be made in this connection of the adult education programme,

Its effective coverage combined with an emphasis on the demonstration of usefulness of education, particularly of children, in the course contents, may help in improving the parents' attitude towards education and in making them to take greater care to enrol and continue their children in the schools. The observed negative impact of young children in the family on the schooling of school-age children, suggests the need for integrating family planning programme with educational programmes particularly in the sphere of extension and publicity.

The poor economic position of the households, no doubt, has a negative influence on the schooling of children. But the impact of the factor is not as important as is often presumed. The direct cost of education in the schools is not very significant to the extent most of the school education we have considered here is free. The indirect cost in terms of the earnings foregone seems of some significance to the extent a sizeable number of households mention need to supplement family income as a reason for drop-out and irregularity in attendance, and most drop-out take place at the age of 10-12 years when the child is supposed to be able to help in some activity. At the same time, not most of the absentees were, infact, found engaged in productive work while absent from the school. Most of the children out of the school, non-enrolled or drop-outs, are girls and in their case the explanation lies.

partly in the need to look after household work, including care of younger brothers and sisters, and partly in the attitude of the parents towards education of the girls. Thus the association between low economic status and poor performance in respect of children's schooling reflects a complex series of causation through economic and non-economic factors. Attitude to education is important, as it directly influences the degree of care the parents take in sending their children to school, but that is determined by their own educational level which is further associated with their economic status.

It is seen that while parents' care and insistence on a child attending school is of great importance, the environment and opportunity that the school provides could supplement or thwart their attempts to a certain extent. Let us accept the fact that for most children studying in the school, particularly with the prevalent technology, method and contents of instructions is not a very enjoyable proposition. They are not of the age where they realise the importance of education. Therefore, the parents have to prod and the school has to provide some attraction to the children in order to ensure their effective schooling. Our findings suggest that a minimum of physical facilities in the form of building is good enough, but teaching aids to make the instructions interesting and scope for out-of-the-classroom activities tend to have a significant impact on

playground is found more important than a blackboard for each class more important than seating facilities; and a local headmaster more effective than food and free books in ensuring regularity in attendance and continuation in the school. The emphasis obviously thus needs to be on making class-room instruction more interesting, reducing the druggery of instructions and course work to the minimum, and on provision for games and other out-of-the class activities. It is interesting to note that a library is found useful to ensure better attendance and retention of children even in basic schools.

The factors influencing enrolment are somewhat basic in character as they relate primarily to the socio-economic conditions of the households, and can be changed only in relatively longer period of time. Closer integration with certain other programmes, as indicated earlier, could, of course, help increase in enrolment, by attempting to influence the attitudes of parents, even in the short run. Drop-out, however, emerges as a more acute problem. And here the capacity of a school to hold the children seems more important than even the socio-economic background of the pupils. The need for more innovative and imaginative approach to planning of schools, facilities and course content and other school activities, than currently followed, is evident in this context.